

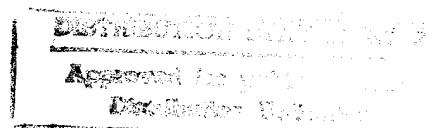
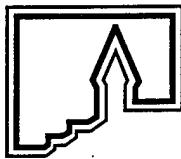
Archaeological Investigations for the Cross Creek Flood Control Project, Rossville, Kansas

Volume I

Prepared for
Cook, Flatt, and Stroebel Engineers
and
Kansas City District U. S. Army Corps of Engineers

CWIS No. 91088
Contract DACW41-92-C-0013
CF & S No. 91-559

By
American Resources Group, Ltd.
Carbondale, Illinois



Authors
Mark J. Wagner
Tracey A. Sandefur
Michael J. McNerney
W. Gordon Howe
Dr. Terrance J. Martin
Kathryn E. Parker
Jim Snyder

19960723 016

Co-Principal Investigators
Mark J. Wagner and Michael J. McNerney

Archaeological Investigations for the Cross Creek Flood Control Project, Rossville, Kansas

Volume I

Prepared for
Cook, Flatt, and Stroebel Engineers
and
Kansas City District U.S. Army Corps of Engineers

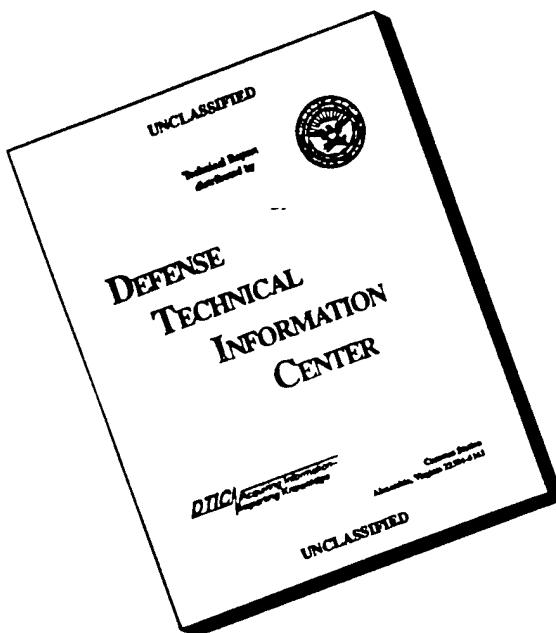
CWIS No. 91088
Contract DACW41-92-C-0013
CF & S No. 91-559

By
American Resources Group, Ltd.
Carbondale, Illinois

Authors
Mark J. Wagner
Tracey A. Sandefur
Michael J. McNerney
W. Gordon Howe
Dr. Terrance J. Martin
Kathryn E. Parker
Jim Snyder

Co-Principal Investigators
Mark J. Wagner and Michael J. McNerney

DISCLAIMER NOTICE



**THIS DOCUMENT IS BEST
QUALITY AVAILABLE. THE COPY
FURNISHED TO DTIC CONTAINED
A SIGNIFICANT NUMBER OF
PAGES WHICH DO NOT
REPRODUCE LEGIBLY.**

Abstract

This report contains the results of Phase I, Phase II, and Phase III archaeological investigations for a portion of the Cross Creek Flood Control Project, Rossville, Kansas. The Phase II survey located one small archaeological site (14SH112). The site consisted of a light scatter of late-nineteenth to early-twentieth century artifacts. The site is interpreted as a dump/discard location and is not considered eligible for the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP).

Phase III archaeological investigations at Site 14SH351, a suspected Potawatomi Reservation Period site, produced little artifactual data and no evidence of subsurface features. The site is not considered eligible for the NRHP.

Phase I archival and historical research identified Site 14SH359 as the former residence of two Metis families. The Laughton family occupied the site from 1848-1855, while the Joseph Laughton-Eli Nadeau family lived at the site from 1855-1869. Phase III test excavations revealed significant subsurface features and artifactual remains dating from the mid nineteenth century to the early twentieth century, indicating both historic Native American and Euroamerican occupations. That portion of the site located in an unplowed wooded area contained 50 cm of midden that produced Historic Native American artifacts. A cellar was uncovered in the wooded area and artifacts dating to the mid nineteenth century were recovered from it. The remainder of the site area is located in a cultivated field, where a well and a structure wall foundation were uncovered. However, the artifacts recovered from these two features date to the late nineteenth to early twentieth century. Site 14SH359 is interpreted as a Metis farmstead and is considered eligible for the NRHP.

Acknowledgements

The archaeological investigations described in this report are the result of a great deal of hard work on the part of a number of individuals. Among these are the field crew, Jim Balsitis, James Burrow, Tracey Sandefur, and Jim Snyder, who conducted the actual excavation and survey work. The successful completion of this project also was aided by the assistance of archivists and historians at a number of different institutions including Nancy Mertz, Jesuit Missouri Province Archives; Mary Ferrel, Citizen Band Potawatomi; and the personnel of the Chicago Historical Society, Kansas State Historical Society, the Kansas City Branch of the National Archives, and Immaculate Conception Church, St. Mary's, Kansas. Special thanks to Dwight Streiter, the personnel at Cook, Flat, and Stroebel Engineers, and Camille Lechliter at the Kansas City District U.S. Army Corps of Engineers.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

VOLUME I. REPORT OF FINDINGS

Abstract	i
Acknowledgements	ii
Chapter I. Introduction	1
Chapter II. Environmental Setting	5
Introduction	5
Topography	5
Hydrology	5
Geology	5
Soils	6
Pre-Settlement Vegetation	6
Land Use	7
Chapter III. Research Design and Methodology	9
Introduction	9
Phase I Records and Literature Review	9
Phase II Channel Alignment Survey	10
Phase III Test Investigations	12
Chapter IV. Archaeological and Historical Background	25
Introduction	25
Prehistoric Archaeological Context	25
Historic Context	30
Chapter V. Results of Investigations at Site 14SH359	41
Introduction	41
Current Investigations	41
Aerial Photographs	57
Field Investigations	60
Twentieth Century Farm Complex	63
Dwight Streeter Collection	65
Surface Collection	65
50 cm x 50 cm Test Units	68

Large Units	68
Chapter VI. Artifact Analysis Site 14SH359	81
Introduction	81
Ceramics	81
Glassware	86
Metal	92
Other	97
Private Collection	100
Summary of Site 14SH359	105
Chapter VII. Botanical Analysis	113
Introduction	113
Methods of Botanical Analysis	113
Wood Charcoal	114
Nutshell	114
Seeds	114
Other Botanical Remains	115
Summary	115
Chapter VIII. Faunal Remains from Site 14SH359	117
Introduction	117
Methods	117
Results	117
Conclusions	124
Chapter IX. Results of Investigations at Sites 14SH348 and 14SH351	125
Introduction	125
Archival Research	125
Field Investigations at Sites 14SH348 and 14SH351	127
Summary	130
Chapter X. Phase II Survey Results	131
Results of Phase II Survey	131
Chapter XI. Evaluation of Research Questions and Recommendations of NRHP	
Significance	135
Site 14SH351	137
Site 14SH359	137
Site 14SH112	138
References	139

VOLUME II. APPENDICES

Appendix A. Research Design	1
Appendix B. 1862 GLO Notes from Township 10 South, Range 13 East	2
Appendix C. Correspondence	3
Appendix D. Historic Artifact Inventory Site 14SH359	4
Appendix E. Faunal Remains from Site 14SH359	5

VOLUME III. BACKGROUND DATA

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.	Location of archaeological investigations and Phase II survey	2
Figure 2.	Location of Potawatomi, circa 1768	33
Figure 3.	Location of Potawatomi, circa 1830	35
Figure 4.	Potawatomi land cessions	37
Figure 5.	Potawatomi reservations in the west	38
Figure 6.	The Laughton-Nadeau family genealogy	43
Figure 7.	Project area in relation to the 1863 GLO map	48
Figure 8.	1863 allotment information for Laughton/Nadeau and Hale families	51
Figure 9.	1873 plat of Rossville area showing the Nadeau and Hale properties	55
Figure 10.	Portion of 1937 aerial photograph showing general location of Site 14SH359	58
Figure 11.	Portion of 1940s aerial photograph showing general location of Site 14SH359	59
Figure 12.	Topographical map of Site 14SH359	61
Figure 13.	View of Site 14SH359, looking northwest	62
Figure 14.	Stone blocks piled along treeline, Site 14SH359, looking southeast	62
Figure 15.	Site 14SH359, poured concrete foundation, looking northeast	64
Figure 16.	Stone well located within northeastern part of Site 14SH359, looking northeast	64
Figure 17.	Planview of 20th century features and structures near Site 14SH359	66
Figure 18.	Controlled surface collection artifact frequency distribution, Site 14SH359 .	67
Figure 19.	Excavation of Block A in field, Site 14SH359, looking north	69
Figure 20.	Excavation of Unit 39, in woods, Site 14SH359, looking north	69
Figure 21.	Planview of Feature 1 in Unit 34, Site 14SH359	71
Figure 22.	Feature 1, Unit 34, Excavation Block B, Site 14SH359, looking north	72
Figure 23.	Feature 2, Excavation Block A, Site 14SH359, looking northwest	72
Figure 24.	Planview, Feature 2, Excavation Block A, Site 14SH359	73
Figure 25.	Wall profiles, Excavation Block C, Site 14SH359	75
Figure 26.	Planview, Feature 3, Excavation Block C, Site 14SH359	76
Figure 27.	Feature 3, Excavation Block C, Site 14SH359	77
Figure 28.	Feature 3, Excavation Block C, Site 14SH359, at 50 cm bs	77
Figure 29.	Feature 4, Site 14SH359	79
Figure 30.	Post mold 1, Site 14SH359	79
Figure 31.	Kitchen related ceramics, Site 14SH359	83
Figure 32.	Clothing, personal, transportation, and prehistoric related artifacts, Site 14SH359	87
Figure 33.	Bottle closures, Site 14SH359	89
Figure 34.	Metal artifacts, Site 14SH359	93
Figure 35.	Metal artifacts, Site 14SH359	96
Figure 36.	Bone and shell buttons, Site 14SH359	99
Figure 37.	Buttons and metal artifacts, Site 14SH359, Dwight Streeter collection . . .	102
Figure 38.	Artifacts, Site 14SH359, Dwight Streeter collection	103

Figure 39.	Cartridge casings and lead bullets, Site 14SH359, Dwight Streeter collection	106
Figure 40.	Location of excavations, Site 14SH351	129
Figure 41.	General location of Site 14SH112 within project R-O-W	133
Figure 42.	Planview of Site 14SH112	134

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.	Movement of the Potawatomi between 1830 and 1867	34
Table 2.	Ceramic Temporal Ranges and Mean Dates of Site 14SH359	109
Table 3.	Bottle Glass Temporal Ranges and Mean Dates of Site 14SH359	110
Table 4.	Functional Artifact Categories of Site 14SH359	111
Table 5.	Species Composition of Animal Remains from 14SH359	118
Table 6.	Comparison of Species Compositions from the Field and the Wooded Areas at 14SH359	120
Table 7.	Distribution of Animal Remains by Unit in the Field Area at 14SH359 . . .	121
Table 8.	Distribution of Animal Remains by Unit in the Wooded Area at 14SH359 .	122

Chapter I: Introduction

Mark J. Wagner

This report describes the results of Phase I (literature review), Phase II (archaeological survey), and Phase III investigations at Rossville, Kansas (Figure 1), executed by American Resources Group, Ltd., under a subcontract with the engineering firm of Cook, Flatt, and Stroebel, of Topeka, Kansas. This research was funded by the U.S. Army and administered by the Kansas City District, Corps of Engineers, as part of contract number DACW41-92-C-0013.

Originally the objectives of the archaeological investigations at Rossville, Kansas were: (1) to conduct a Phase I records and literature review; (2) conduct a Phase II archaeological survey of a 13-acre area (Figure 1); and (3) conduct Phase III archaeological test investigations at three sites (14SH348, -351, and -359) to recover sufficient information to evaluate the eligibility of these sites for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP). However, due to denial of right-of-entry at Site 14SH348, testing could only be completed at Sites 14SH359 and 14SH351.

The study performed herein by the Contractor for the Corps of Engineers is called for in the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 (PL-89-665) as amended. Accomplishment of this work provides documentation evidencing compliance with Executive Order 11593, "Protection and Enhancement of the Cultural Environment," dated May 13, 1971, and Section 11 of the National Historic Preservation Act. All work conformed to professional standards and guidelines set forth in the Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archaeology and Historic Preservation (Federal Register, Volume 48, No. 190, September 29, 1983).

Specific tasks accomplished by American Resources Group, Ltd. as part of the archaeological investigations included (1) preparation of a research design; (2) a records and literature review; (3) archaeological survey of a 25-acre area; (4) excavation of archaeological materials at Site 14SH359 and screened shovel tests at Site 14SH351; (5) analysis of recovered materials; (6) preparation of a report of findings in accordance with the Scope of Work; (7) preparation of cultural materials for curation or return to the land owner (Appendix A).

Field research on the Phase III investigation was carried out between December 1-9, 1993. Field work carried out during this time consisted of the excavation of screened shovel tests at Site 14SH351 and archaeological test units at Site 14SH359. The work was carried out by a

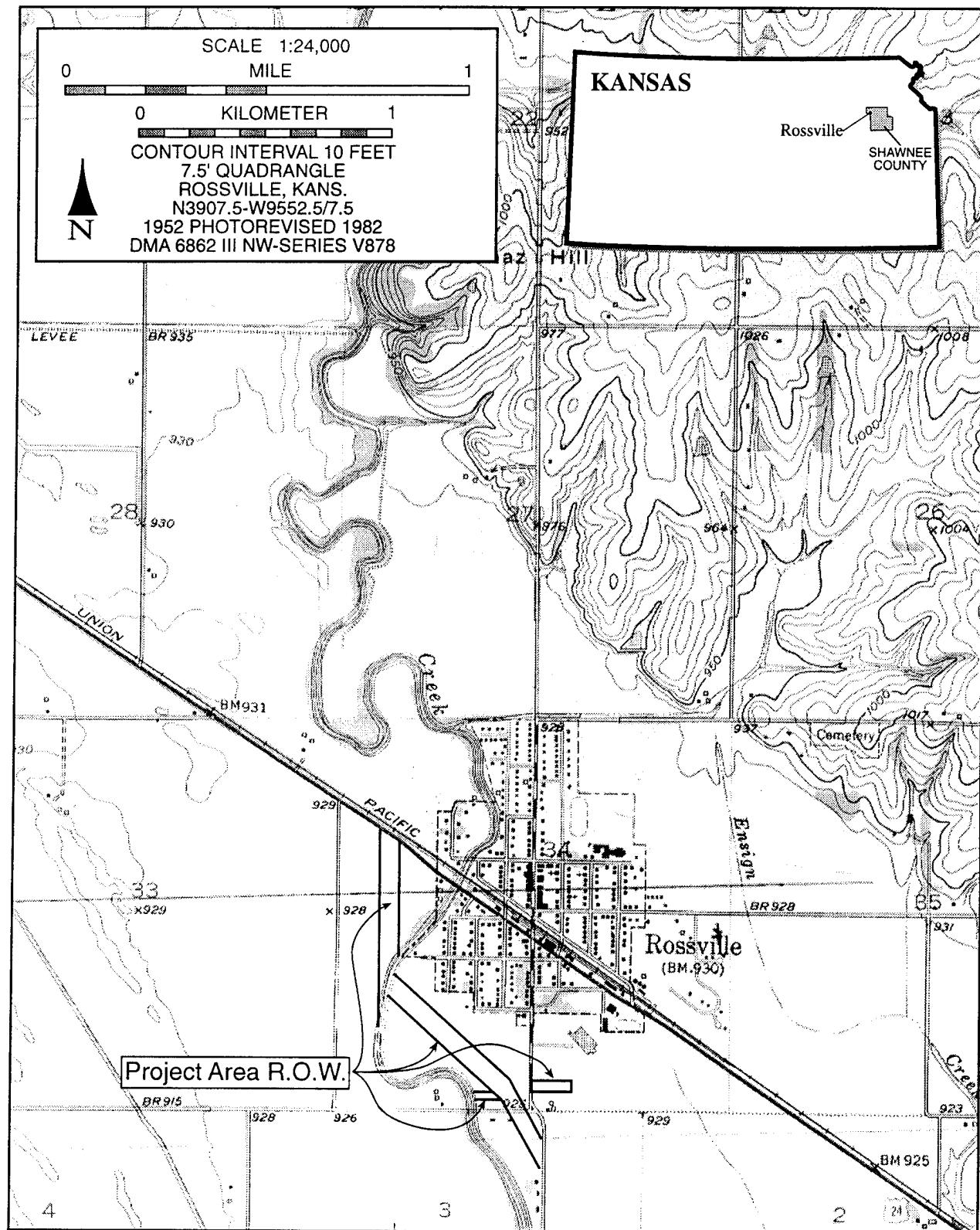


Figure 1. Location of archaeological investigations and Phase II survey.

four-person crew under the supervision of Mark Wagner. Tracey Sandefur analyzed the historic artifacts from Site 14SH359, and Jim Snyder analyzed the historic artifacts from Site 14SH351. Dr. Terrance J. Martin and Claire Fuller Martin, Illinois State Museum, analyzed the faunal remains from Site 14SH359, and Kathryn E. Parker, Great Lakes Ecosystems, Indian River, Michigan, analyzed the botanical remains from the site. Mark Wagner conducted the historical research. The Phase II survey was conducted on April 26, 1994 by two crew members under the supervision of W. Gordon Howe; Tracey Sandefur analyzed the historic artifacts, and final editing was done by Bonita Rubach, Jim Snyder, and Jayette Bolinski. The research design of the project, including the field and laboratory methods employed during the study, is explained in detail in Chapter IV.

Chapter II: Environmental Setting

Mark J. Wagner

Introduction

The project area is located north of the Kansas River in Shawnee County, Kansas (Figure 1). This area is contained entirely within the Glaciated Region of northeastern Kansas, a dissected drift plain bordered on the south by the Kansas River valley and on the west by the Flint Hills (Mandel 1987:III-3).

Topography

The project area is situated geographically in the Glaciated Region of Kansas, a dissected drift plain bordered on the south by the Kansas River valley and on the west by the Flint Hills (Mandel 1987:III-3). At least two ice sheets have previously invaded northeastern Kansas, leaving a covering of glacial drift of unconsolidated till and loess of Pleistocene Age over much of the terrain and in lower areas alluvium of more recent age. During the Kansan glaciation the area was covered by a continental ice sheet that extended beyond the Kansas River. The advance of the ice sheet scoured stream valleys and leveled uplands throughout the drift plain (Mandel 1987:III-3).

Hydrology

The Glaciated region is drained by the Missouri, Big Blue, Delaware, and Nemaha rivers (Mandel 1987:III-5). These rivers flow southward, draining into the Kansas River which flows eastward across Kansas, ultimately discharging into the Missouri River. Drainage within the northern part of Shawnee County is provided by a series of small creeks including Soldier, Cross, and Vermillion creeks which flow in a general southern direction to empty into the Kansas River. Drainage within the southern part of the county is provided by a similar set of small creeks including Mission, Middle, and Mill creeks that flow in a general northeast direction toward the Kansas River.

Geology

The project area is contained within the only portion of Kansas that was covered with continental ice sheets during the Pleistocene. Consequently, till deposits cap landforms, and these deposits contain cobbles with sources to the north and east of the project area. Most noteworthy

are cobbles of igneous and metamorphic rock (e.g., granite, basalt, babas, and quartzite) that do not have naturally occurring outcrops of any significance in Kansas (except sedimentary quartzite) (Tolstead and Swineford 1985).

The area is underlain by the Pennsylvanian System bedrock that is part of the Forest City Basin (Branson 1962; Schoewe 1949). The basin encompasses northeastern Kansas, southeastern Iowa, and northwestern Missouri. It is composed of alternating layers of limestone, siltstone, sandstone, shale, coal, and underclay. Sandstone occurs interbedded with limestone and shale in channel deposits in Shawnee County (Buchanan 1984:53).

Soils

The soils on the floodplain, both north and south of Highway 24, containing Sites 14SH112 and 14SH359 are part of the Reading-Wabash association (Abmeyer and Campbell 1970). These are deep, well-drained to somewhat poorly drained floodplain and terrace soils with a silty loam or silty clay subsoil. The soils consist entirely of Reading silt loams. These highly productive fertile soils formed in moderately textured alluvium. A typical soil profile consists of dark grayish-brown silty clay loam (0-14 in below surface (BS)), dark brown silty clay loam (14-40 in BS), brown silty clay loam (40-56 in BS), and yellowish brown silty clay loam (56-70 in BS) (Abmeyer and Campbell 1970:16).

Pre-Settlement Vegetation

Both prairie and floodplain forests were present within Shawnee County at the time of the establishment of the Potawatomi Reserve in the late 1840s (Mandel 1987:III-20). The bottomland forest was confined to a corridor paralleling the Kansas River with the remainder of the county covered by Bluestem prairie.

Information regarding the appearance of the natural environment within the immediate vicinity of the current project area was obtained by consulting Government Land Office (GLO) survey documents housed at the Kansas State Historical Society, Topeka, Kansas. These included the field notebooks of the original government land office surveyors, Edward Wolcott, R.C. Joseph, and H.S. Sleefer, who laid out the section lines in Township 2N, Range 2E of Shawnee County in 1862 in accordance with the congressional land-survey system. GLO surveyors were required to mark the position of all township, section, and quarter-section lines in relation to witness trees, if in a wooded area, or by erecting a mound of dirt if in a prairie area. They also were required to record the species, diameters, and distance from the section-line crossings of the trees they used as bearing indicators or witness trees. At the end of each mile, surveyors recorded the timber and undergrowth, described the topography, and rated the agricultural potential of the soil. In addition, surveyors indicated where they crossed from prairie to woodland on the section line which direction the woodland boundary extended (Hawes and Weir 1979:2). Surveyors recorded the positions and sizes of all streams, rivers, swamps, rock outcrops, caves, stone quarries, coal or peat beds, and major changes in topography (Moffat 1985:27). These survey

notes were later used to construct maps that showed the location of prairies, woodlands, streams, and other features within each township.

The surveyors' records indicate that the natural environment in the project areas consisted of a combination of woods and prairie. Wooded areas were confined to the banks of Cross Creek. Tree species used by the surveyors as witness trees that were summarized at the end of each mile reveal that the overstory vegetation included oak, elm, walnut, willow, sycamore, cottonwood, ash, hickory, red bud, mulberry, cherry, honey locust, lynn, and hackberry. The understory consisted of hazel, grapevine, green briar, gooseberry, sumac, dogwood, plum, paw, grape vines, and prickly ash (Appendix B).

The vegetation away from the creek banks was simply listed as "prairie." Although individual plant species were not recorded by the surveyors, dominant flora probably consisted of little and big Bluestem, switchgrass, Indian grass, and broom grass.

Land Use

Current land use within the project area is entirely agricultural. Both the survey area as well as all three sites are located in what would have been prairie in 1862. All were under cultivation during the fall of 1993 and early spring of 1994. As in 1862, wooded areas were confined to the margins of Cross Creek.

Chapter III: Research Design and Methodology

Mark J. Wagner

Introduction

The following research design is guided by the contract objectives as presented in the Scope of Work and the level of proposed effort. In keeping with the primary objectives as stated in the Scope of Work, this research focused on intensive documentary review (Phase I), the location and assessment of cultural resources within a 25 acre channel realignment and levee construction area (Phase II), and test excavations at Sites 14SH349, 14SH351, and 14SH359 (Phase III).

Phase I Records and Literature Review

This consisted of archival research into primary source material on the Potawatomi.

Archival Research

Research into primary documents associated with the Potawatomi was conducted at the Kansas City branch of the National Archives, Kansas City, Missouri; the Jesuit Missouri Province Archives, St. Louis, Missouri; Chicago Historical Society, Chicago, Illinois; Kansas State Historical Society, Topeka, Kansas; Shawnee County Courthouse, Topeka, Kansas; Citizen Band Potawatomi, Shawnee, Kansas; and Immaculate Conception Church, St. Mary's, Kansas.

The purpose of this research was to recover information on the kinship and social relationships of the Laughton, Nadeau, and Hale families. This resulted in the recovery of a great deal of previously unknown information regarding these families. In addition to this research, numerous histories and other published documents were consulted for information relating to the history of the Potawatomi (Clifton 1977; Edmunds 1978; Garraghan 1938; Herring 1990; Miner and Unrau 1978; Murphy 1988).

Phase II Channel Alignment Survey

Prehistoric Research Design

In its broadest sense, archaeological research focuses on how human populations adapted to their particular environments and how the resulting cultural complexes changed through time in response to changing environmental and social conditions. Cultural changes can be inferred from the archaeological record with varying degrees of success through comparative analyses of artifactual remains as manifested by technology, settlement/subsistence systems, human biology, social organization, and ideology.

It is obvious that although surveys of the very small size (25 acres) of the current survey may offer some information on settlement patterns (site locations) and possibly some limited information on technology (chert procurement and stone tool production), other questions about extinct cultural systems cannot be addressed. Therefore, a few general research considerations were presented to guide the survey effort. Some propositions and questions which were to be examined included the following:

1. Due to environmental and cultural factors, cultural affiliation will be indeterminate for 70% of all prehistoric sites recorded.
2. If diagnostic cultural materials are recovered, they will represent previously identified cultural phases within the Glaciated Region of northeastern Kansas.
3. Prehistoric site frequency within the floodplain will be low.

Prehistoric Site Types For the purposes of the survey, a site was defined as "a spatial cluster of cultural features, items, or both" (Binford 1972:46). This definition applies to both prehistoric and historic archaeological sites. Archaeological context may be defined by including any of the following: soil staining, associated fire-cracked rock, ceramics, features, or a concentration of materials within a reasonably definable spatial boundary.

Localities designated as sites may be differentiated further into site types. The following prehistoric site type model (after Binford 1980:8-10) has been used successfully in the Midwest (Moffat et al. 1985; Ray et al. 1984) and was used for site discussions and interpretations within the project area.

Habitation Sites Habitation sites contain cultural deposits related to seasonal occupation and may include subsurface features. Organic staining indicative of residential structures and task-specific activities may be represented. Site size is moderate to extensive. Density of cultural debris and diversity of artifact classes are moderate to large. Two kinds of habitation sites may be defined.

Residential Base Camp or Village These are the hubs of subsistence activities, the locus out of which foraging parties originate and where most processing, manufacturing, and maintenance activities take place (Binford 1980:9). Residential base camps may be manifested in the archaeological record as large sites with a high artifact density and a wide diversity of tools and other artifacts. Cultural features are usually present.

Field Camp A field camp is defined as a temporary operational center for a task group that maintains itself while away from the residential base and may be expected to be further differentiated according to the nature of the resources to be procured (Binford 1980:10). The task groups may function to procure resources for social groups much larger than themselves; sites may vary considerably, depending upon the size of the group and the nature of the tasks to be performed. Subsurface features may be present.

Limited Activity Sites These contain no subsurface features or structures or cultural deposits of substantial integrity related to seasonal occupation on the site. Organic staining is absent. Site size is generally small and the area occupied for only a short period of time. Density of cultural debris and diversity of artifact classes are limited severely due to the extractive nature of the limited activity.

Isolated Find Spots These are sites that contain less than five artifacts. The sites are interpreted as representing the location of lost or casually discarded artifacts. Evidence of long-term utilization or occupation of the site area is not present.

Historic Research Design

Historic archaeological sites located by the survey of the 13 acre parcel were treated similar to prehistoric sites. Based on the historic background of the project area, two types of historic sites were predicted to be potentially located within the project area.

Farmstead Complex Both mid-nineteenth century Metis and late-nineteenth to twentieth century Euroamerican farmsteads were predicted to be potentially located in the project area. Farmsteads typically consisted of a house and associated outbuildings. House structures were either log or frame. The foundation was generally made of sandstone, limestone, or brick, and was either a pier or full perimeter foundation. Outbuildings and facilities that surrounded the house structure within a 15 m radius included the smokehouse, cellar, well, cistern, and privy.

Farmsteads often contain a separate barnyard area located within a 200 m radius of the domestic area. Structures and facilities in this area included the barn, corn crib, paddocks, gardens, and fruit orchards (McCorvie et al. 1989). Located at an even greater distance from the domestic area are the fields, pastures, hog lots, and other agricultural facilities of the farmstead.

Artifacts that are present on farmsteads include nails and other construction materials; brick; sandstone; limestone; earthenware; stoneware; window glass; bottles; canning jars; pressed glass containers; metal objects; toys such as marbles, slate pencils and boards; pipes; buttons; and various domestic items. Ceramics usually represent a sizable percentage of the total number of artifacts with a larger ratio of earthenware to stoneware. A relatively high percentage of earthenware is generally a good indicator of a habitation site. The quantity and quality of artifacts reflect the economic status of the site.

Dump or Discard Locations These sites originate strictly for the purpose of depositing refuse from other sites. Dump areas generally consist of larger objects such as worn-out machinery parts, portions of demolished outbuildings, and large household items. Gullies, ravines, or steep slopes are likely places for dumps. Smaller items such as broken ceramics are often discarded closer to the activity area.

Methods

The 25 acre survey area located south of the railroad tracks and Highway 24 was surveyed on April 26, 1994, using a combination of visual surface reconnaissance and shovel test techniques. Visual surface reconnaissance was used as the primary method in those sections of the survey area where ground surface visibility exceeded 25%. The survey areas had a linear configuration and were surveyed by two crew members on parallel transects separated by 20 m intervals. The survey area was freshly planted with corn and beans only a few inches high offering 100% surface visibility.

Phase III Test Investigations

Research Design

The primary significance of the test investigations at sites 14SH348, -351, and -359 lay in their potential to provide data on Metis identity, ethnicity, and cultural persistence and change. Metis identity and ethnicity have proven to be difficult subjects to define, let alone investigate. Harrison (1984:15) has noted that the intermediary position of Metis groups between Euroamerican and Native American societies created a negative identity: they were Metis because they were not somebody else. In somewhat the same vein, Peterson (1978:55) has suggested that Metis identity was derived from their intermediary position as cultural brokers between Native American and European societies. The Metis magnified this symbolic role by serving as guides, interpreters, mission employees, negotiators, spies, tribal business agents, as well as other positions that allowed them to function as links between Native American and European societies.

The concept of cultural brokers who mediate between an industrialized world-system and local communities has become of increasing importance in historical studies of Native American-Euroamerican relations in eastern North America in recent years (Clifton 1978;

Hagedorn 1988; Page 1985; Richter 1988). The concept of cultural brokers was first articulated by Wolf (1956) in a study of group relations in Mexico. Wolf defined cultural brokers as individuals who in times of changing economic, social, and political relationships manipulate and improve upon social ties between local communities and national institutions. Cultural brokers mediate between community-oriented individuals who lack economic security and political connections, and individuals and institutions that operate on a national level (Wolf 1956:1076). Cultural brokers also use their skill in adapting to potential economic and political opportunities as a means to improve their own status and power. Tensions between cultural brokers and more traditional local community members can lead to conflicts between individuals, families, or entire communities (Long 1975).

Richter (1988:40-41) has suggested that Native American and Euroamerican interpreters who assisted in negotiations between the Five Nations of The Iroquois Confederacy and the British Empire throughout the late seventeenth century were cultural brokers who represented links between local political structures and the imperial powers of the modern world-system. Often connected by a network of political, social, and kin ties to both sides, interpreters occupied an intermediate position that allowed them to promote the aims of one side while at the same time protecting the interests of the other. Hagedorn (1988:63) has similarly characterized interpreters as cultural brokers, noting that their intermediate positions between European and Iroquoian society provided them with a knowledge of the culture and customs of both groups that allowed them to mediate negotiations between the two groups successfully.

Clifton (1977, 1978:18) has identified the Mission or Citizen Band Metis as representing cultural brokers who mediated between their own Potawatomi kinsmen and the American government in the early to mid nineteenth century. His negative characterization of the Citizen Band and their activities, however, differs from the traditional anthropological portrayal of cultural brokers as serving the interests of both groups (Wolf 1954). Clifton (1977:272-275) viewed the relationship of the Metis to the Potawatomi an exploitative one in which the Metis used their skills as intercultural brokers to serve their own interests (Clifton 1977:272-275). When the Potawatomi was removed to western North America, the predatory Metis followed them "like a school of pilot fish following a wounded shark" (Clifton 1977:282).

As the former residence of the Laughton (1848-1855) and Laughton-Nadeau (1855-1867) families, both of whose Metis members functioned as intermediaries between the Potawatomi and the federal government, site 14SH359 has the clear potential to provide detailed information on the role of the Metis as cultural brokers within Potawatomi society. If Peterson's (1978:55) definition of Metis identity as being associated with their intermediate position between the two societies is correct, then this intermediate identity should be reflected in the material culture, subsistence data, and use of space associated with Site 14SH359. For example, the Metis pattern of Metis males marrying Native American women to expand their economic, family, social connections should theoretically result in a combination of Euroamerican and Native American artifacts, activities, and architecture at Metis household sites.

Sites 14SH348 and 14SH351 have the potential to provide comparative data that can be used in combination with that recovered from Site 14SH359 further to assess Metis ethnicity and identity. Historical accounts of the Citizen Band Metis present maddeningly vague descriptions of what must have been a very diverse society (Clifton 1977, 1978). It appears from these accounts, however, that the Metis were distributed along a social and economic continuum. At one end were families whose economic situation, material culture, and subsistence activities were virtually indistinguishable from that of traditional Potawatomi household culture while at the other end were highly acculturated, economically wealthy, and politically powerful families such as the Nadeaus. The original Citizen Band owners/occupants of sites 14SH348 and 14SH351 were John and Julia Hale, neither of whom appears to have achieved the importance nor wealth of the Laughtons and Nadeaus. As such, both of these sites potentially could provide information on less wealthy, possibly less acculturated, Citizen Band Metis that could be used to examine the full range of social, economic, and other behaviors that made up Metis identity.

The identification of the Laughton family as the earliest occupants of Site 14SH359 is extremely significant in terms of the project objectives regarding cultural persistence or change among the Metis. In 1991 the Illinois State Museum conducted test excavations at a vandalized historic archaeological site in northeastern Illinois that was located on a tract of land reserved for Joseph Laughton and his mother Wais-ke-Shaw by the Camp Tippecanoe Treaty of October 20, 1832, between the United States and the Potawatomi (Fay 1971:76). The archaeological test excavations at the Windrose site (11-Ka-381A) identified the remains of a probable log structure and an early-nineteenth century artifact assemblage of mixed Euroamerican and Native American artifacts consistent with involvement in the fur trade. The faunal assemblage, which contained a high proportion of fur-bearing animals, also suggested that the site occupants were active in the fur trade. The investigators concluded that the Windrose site represented the occupation of Joseph Laughton and his mother from 1832 until 1836 when the land was sold. The Windrose site data (Tankersley et al. 1992) represents a comparative collection that can be used in conjunction with the data from Site 14SH359 to examine cultural change or persistence within a single Metis family from the 1830s to 1860s. This data is available in a published form (Tankersley et al. 1992).

Research Hypotheses The following specific research hypotheses were developed to examine the research topics presented in the preceding section. The extent to which the various hypotheses were examined, of course, was contingent on the types and quantities of archaeological data recovered:

- (1) Metis identity as cultural brokers will be reflected in patterns of material culture, subsistence activities, and spatial organization that reflect their role as mediators between Native American and Euroamerican societies.
- (2) Although conforming to a basic pattern that reflects the intermediary role of the Metis, archaeological materials recovered from Metis sites will exhibit a variation that reflects the wide range in acculturation that characterized mid-nineteenth

century Citizen Band Metis society.

(3) Metis adaptability to changing social and economic conditions will be reflected in a wide variation in material culture and subsistence patterns between the 1830s Laughton household at the Windrose Site (11-Ka-318A) in Illinois and the 1848-ca.1867 Laughton/Nadeau household (Site 14SH359) in Kansas.

Methodology

The archaeological test investigations at Sites 14SH348, -351, and -359 were designed to recover information on the spatial organization, material culture, and subsistence activities of Citizen Band Metis households that could be used to examine identity, ethnicity, and acculturation among the Metis. These investigations will be conducted in accordance with the specifications presented in Exhibit 5 of the Project Scope of Work.

Burley et al. (1992:96-97, 121) have noted that Metis identity at sites in western Canada is reflected by a continuous and unspecialized use of space that symbolizes the Metis perception of themselves as part of nature. It was proposed that comparative data on this topic for the Citizen Band Metis could be recovered through the implementation of controlled surface collections at the three project sites. The purpose of the proposed controlled surface collections was to provide information regarding the types of nineteenth century artifacts at the site, their horizontal distribution, and variation in the frequencies and kinds of artifacts across the sites that potentially represent the locations of subsurface cultural features. Low surface visibility at Sites 14SH351 and 14SH359, however, mandated the implementation of alternative strategies to recover the same information. At Site 14SH359 the locations of artifacts observed on the surface were marked by pin flags, with the artifacts then collected by the 5 m x 5 m grid unit in which they were contained. Site limits were defined by excavating a series of 50 cm² units at 10 m intervals in a grid pattern across the site. The purpose of these units was to recover information regarding the horizontal and vertical distribution of materials across the site. The soil from each unit was screened through 1/2 inch mesh. As will be discussed in Chapter VI, site 14SH351 was found to represent an arbitrary section of an extremely light continuous scatter of artifacts on the floodplain surface rather than an occupation or activity site. Only two artifacts were observed on the floodplain surface in the recorded location of Site 14SH351. As such, investigations at the site were limited to excavating a series of screened shovel tests across the site.

Larger units were excavated at Sites 14SH351 and 14SH359 following the completion of the excavation of the 50 cm x 50 cm units. The location and size of the various units were based on the information provided by the surface collections and test units. Each unit was excavated with hand tools (i.e., shovels and trowels) in 10 cm arbitrary levels. The southwest corner of all units at each site was recorded in relation to the site datum, with all measurements within each unit taken from these corners using a line level and a hand held tape. This corner also was used as a designator for the entire unit, with each unit assigned an individual number. The bottoms and sides of these units were inspected and all soil zones recorded. The floor of each unit was

troweled and mapped at a 1:20 scale at the base of each level if soil staining was present. If soil staining was absent, a notation to that effect was recorded in the site notebook and a map was not prepared. All fill from these units was passed through 1/2 inch mesh screen with a 10 liter sample from each level passed through 1/4 inch mesh. Artifacts were collected by 10 cm level. One five liter flotation sample was recovered from each level of each unit. Standard level forms were filled out for each level excavated and at least one wall of each hand excavation unit was profiled and photographed. If features were found, they were mapped on the level floor plans and drawn on the unit profiles. In order to facilitate record keeping, hand units were identified by a letter of the alphabet as well as by a site grid number. Similar procedures were used in the excavation of subsurface features other than architectural features. Each feature was mapped in plain view, cross section, and profile.

The procedures described in the above paragraph have been successfully used by the contractor in the excavation of historical archaeological sites in Kansas (Wagner et al. 1988, 1992a, 1993), Illinois (McCorvie 1986; McCorvie et al. 1988; Wagner and McCorvie 1988, 1990), and Kentucky (Wagner et al. 1992b) and were employed in the present project. Our experience has been that use of a 1/2 inch mesh screen to process site soils recovers virtually all materials identifiable to type associated with historical occupations. While use of 1/4 inch obviously increases the recovery rate of artifacts, the majority of this material is of such small size that it cannot be identified beyond general material categories such as metal, glass, whiteware, and so on, and does not add significantly to the examination of the historical occupation at the site. Further, the processing of a sample of the unit and feature soils through 1/4 inch mesh as well as the collection of flotation soil samples provides a systematically collected sample of any small materials (such as glass beads) that may pass through a 1/2 inch mesh screen.

Detailed maps showing the location of grid and excavation units were prepared for two sites using a transit stationed over a datum. The datums for all three sites were located in wooded areas along the field margins to protect them from farming activities. In addition, the locations of these datums were keyed into permanent features in the vicinity of each site so that the datums could be re-established at a future date.

Laboratory Procedures

All artifacts were processed (washed, sorted, cataloged, and labeled) at the laboratory facilities of American Resources Group, Ltd., in Carbondale, Illinois.

Native American-Manufactured Artifacts It was anticipated that prehistoric Native American-manufactured lithic, ceramic, and bone materials could be recovered by the survey of a 13 acre section of the project area. Historic period Native American lithic and ceramic materials also potentially could have been recovered from any mid-nineteenth century Potawatomi sites found in the survey area as well as by the excavations at Sites 14SH351 and 14SH359. Archaeological excavations conducted at a mid-nineteenth century Potawatomi site (14SH315)

contained in the same county as the project area recovered chert flakes, a chert projectile point, modified cobbles, and ceramic figurines in association with Euroamerican artifacts (Reynolds 1987:61- 99). Similarly, excavation of the early nineteenth century Potawatomi component at the Windrose site in Illinois recovered Native American manufactured stone smoking pipes, a possible stone gaming piece, a clay bead, shell beads, a bone gaming piece, and a drilled hog mandible (Tankersley et al. 1992).

A major goal of the archaeological test investigations at Sites 14SH351 and 14SH359, was to assess cultural persistence or change among the Potawatomi during the nineteenth century. The proportions and types of both Native American and Euroamerican manufactured artifacts recovered at these two sites were compared with each other and with the published data from the Windrose site in Illinois (Tankersley et al. 1992).

Both prehistoric and historic Native American manufactured materials were separated into functional categories and recognized type names applied where appropriate. Lithic artifacts were separated into the following tool types developed by Wagner et al. (1989) for use at the McPherson site (14Lv357) which also was located within the Glaciated Region of northeastern Kansas:

Groundstone

1. Cobble Tools These artifacts are nothing more than alluvial or glacial cobbles that were used with little or no prior modification. Commonly, these tools are igneous/metamorphic cobbles that were used as hammers, anvils, manos, metates, or a combination of functions. Battered, crushed, pitted, and/or smooth surfaces identify these cobbles as tools.

2. Unmodified Cobbles Intact cobbles that do not possess traces of use are placed in this category.

3. Sandstone Abraders Other raw materials (e.g., limestone, quartzite) were used to manufacture abraders, but sandstone is the most common. Abraders come in two basic types: grooved (slotted) and flat. The latter type is simply a piece of sandstone with one or more flat or shallow concaved surfaces that were used for grinding or polishing.

4. Formal Groundstone Tools These artifacts are easily identified as tools because of their distinctive shapes and polished surfaces. Axes, pipes, and pendants are examples of these tools.

5. Minerals Galena (lead ore) and limonite and hematite (iron ore) are minerals that are frequently recovered from sites. These materials were converted into tools, ornaments, and pigments. Other unusual minerals (e.g., quartz crystals, mica, pipestone) also belong in this category.

6. **Cracked Rock** Nonchert rock debris that is not a tool fragment or a mineral (see above) is placed in this category. Cracked rock usually represents cobbles and/or chunks of local bedrock that were employed in heating and cooking activities.

7. **Pebbles** Small (less than 5 cm in length) alluvial or glacial pebbles of any raw material (except minerals) are placed in this category. Specimens greater than 5 cm in length should be placed in the unmodified cobble category or the primary form category (see below).

Chipped Stone

1. **Primary Forms** This category contains unmodified chert cobbles, nodules, and blocks. Specimens smaller than 5 cm in length should be placed in the unmodified pebble category. Specimens that have had one or two flakes detached are cobbles and should be placed in the core category (see below).

2. **Decortication Flakes** Any complete or nearly complete flake with cortex across all or part (i.e., 50% or greater) of its dorsal surface is considered a decortication flake. These flakes are the first series of flakes removed from a nodule or cobble during the manufacture of chipped stone implements.

3. **Tertiary Flakes** Any flake or flake fragment with less than 50% cortex, a bulb of percussion, and platform that does not exhibit lipping or multiple facets is a tertiary flake. Tertiary flakes can be flake blanks detached from cores (multidirectional or bipolar) or flakes generated during early to mid-stage biface production.

4. **Biface Thinning and Resharpening Flakes** These flakes exhibit attributes indicating their removal during the final stages of biface production or maintenance. The striking platform is a minute portion of the edge of the biface and thus possesses multiple facets. Lipping of the platform is common as is grinding. The dorsal surface is usually covered with numerous overlapping flake scars, and the curvature of the flake tends to be greater than the curvature of tertiary flakes.

5. **Bladelets** Linear flakes that are twice as long as they are wide and show evidence of sequential removal from a prepared core are placed in this category. Typically, bladelets possess 1-3 flake scars that run parallel to each other down the length of the bladelet's dorsal surface.

6. **Shatter** Shatter includes chunks, small splinters, and flake fragments which exhibit no striking platform or bulb of percussion. Shatter is produced during stone tool manufacture, particularly if (1) poor quality (e.g., internal fractures) lithic material is used, (2) bipolar reduction is employed, and (3) lithic items are intensively reworked and recycled.

7. Cores A core is any cobble or piece of chert from which one or more flakes have been removed but that has not been shaped into a tool or used extensively for a task other than that of a nucleus from which flakes have been struck. Three basic core types are freehand (multidirectional), bipolar, and blade (or bladelet).

8. Bifaces A biface can be defined as a flake or cobble that has had multiple flakes removed from dorsal and ventral surfaces. Bilateral symmetry and a lenticular cross-section are common attributes; however, these attributes vary with the stages of production as do thickness and uniformity of the edge. Included in this category are all bifacial flaked tools such as projectile points, drills, formal scrapers, and preforms.

9. Formal Flake Tools or Unifaces Unifaces are formalized tools that have been formed by the removal of a series of flakes from at least two edges of one flake face. Unifaces are patterned tools that were manufactured for specific tasks and were designed to be maintained (resharpened) and reused. The most common form of uniface recovered from sites is the endscraper.

10. Informal Flake Tools These tools are utilized and retouched flakes. They represent simple tools that were employed in a variety of tasks with little to no prior modification.

Chert types for all chipped artifacts were identified using a comparative collection of Kansas cherts that was assembled during the investigation of the McPherson Site (14Lv357) in 1988 (Wagner et al. 1989). This collection is housed at the laboratory facilities of American Resources Group, Ltd., in Carbondale, Illinois.

Ceramics

It was anticipated that both prehistoric and historic period Native American ceramics could be recovered from the project area. The Potawatomi, for example, are known to have manufactured grit-tempered ceramics during the historic period (Skinner 1924). Additionally, sand-tempered ceramics recovered at Site 14SH506 in Shawnee County have been suggested to be Potawatomi in origin (Rohn and Maline 1981).

All ceramic vessel fragments were analyzed and separated into types on the basis of temper, surface treatment, and decorative attributes. Information regarding vessel wall thickness was obtained by measuring all of the rims sherds. Vessel wall thickness was determined on the basis of two measurements taken on the thinnest and thickest points of each sherd. A hand caliper accurate to 0.1 mm was used to obtain these measurements. The ceramic assemblage was sorted into sherd types using the point of origin of the sherd on the vessel as a criterion. Four sherd types were defined: rims (vessel lip present); necks (decoration, recurvature, or part of the vessel shoulder present); body (thin undecorated sherds); and basal (thick sherds exhibiting abrasion or wear). Rim and neck sherds were used to define the ceramic vessel types contained within each

wear type. The correct orientation for each rim was determined by placing the sherd against a horizontal surface and manipulating the sherd until the sherd was flush with the horizontal surface. The resultant rim profiles revealed to what extent vessel forms such as jars, bowls, plates, pans, or other vessel forms were represented in the assemblage. The data from the ceramic analysis was used to determine if the ceramics recovered by the archaeological investigations correspond to previously defined prehistoric ceramic types for eastern Kansas (O'Brien 1984) or whether they represent "Colono-Ware" ceramics similar to those documented at other mid to late nineteenth century Native American sites (Wallis 1984). In the case of ceramics suspected to be of Potawatomi manufacture, direct comparisons were made with the ceramics recovered from Site 14SH506 if these materials were available for inspection.

Euroamerican-Manufactured Artifacts Euroamerican-manufactured objects were anticipated to be recovered from both Potawatomi and Euroamerican sites in the project area. Past archaeological investigation of Potawatomi sites in both Kansas (Reynolds 1987) and Illinois (Tankersley et al. 1984) has shown that these sites contain a very high proportion of Euroamerican items. Items generally indicative of a Native American as opposed to an Euroamerican occupation, and, which may be used to distinguish between these occupations include brass bracelets, hawk bells, metal arrow points, cut sheet brass, brass kettles, silver rings, silver brooches, silver earrings, cut silver, and glass trade beads (Reynolds 1987; Tankersley et al. 1992; Quimby 1963). All of these artifact types recovered by the investigations were subsumed within the functional categories first established by South (1977) to analyze Euroamerican manufactured materials recovered by the investigation.

All of the Euroamerican artifacts were separated first into three major classes--ceramic, glass, and metal. Subclasses were then defined within each major class. Material noted in the field but not collected was also identified. This fourth class of artifacts consisted of construction materials other than ceramic, glass, and metal and included such materials as cement, brick, and sandstone. These classes were used to describe and quantify material and to aid in determining site type as well as the date of occupation of each site.

In addition, each artifact was attributed to a particular functionally related category following South (1977). It should be noted that this same procedure has been used successfully in the analysis of historic period Native American occupations in Oklahoma (Wallis 1984). The categories to be used in the present study include: (1) kitchen (tablewares, preserved food containers and associated elements, and cooking utensils); (2) household (furniture parts, figurines, lamp parts, mirror fragments, brass kettles, and non-food related bottle and jars); (3) clothing (buttons, trade beads, shoe parts, hook-and-eye parts, straight pins, hawk bells, and brooches); (4) personal (pipes, toys, combs, rings, bracelets, and earrings); (5) arms (gun parts, ammunition, metal arrow heads); (6) transportation (wagon and carriage parts, harness and saddle parts, horseshoes and farriers nails); (7) architectural (window glass, nails, hardware, and daub); (8) other (items that are potentially identifiable but cannot be identified at the present time); and (9) unidentifiable (all items that are too poorly preserved or too fragmentary to be identified as to function).

Ceramics The ceramic artifacts were initially identified according to ware type such as whiteware, ironstone, porcelain, and stoneware. These wares are differentiated on the basis of paste color, paste texture, glaze, and decoration, attributes generally recognized as temporal indicators for historic ceramics.

Whiteware and Ironstone Because of their similar paste composition and glaze color, whiteware and ironstone are often difficult to separate. Therefore, for this analysis ironstone was defined as a highly fired refined white-pasted ware. Whiteware, although refined, is fired at a much lower temperature and therefore more porous. Ironstone wares can be easily separated from whiteware by the lack of porosity, indicated in touching the sherd in question to the tongue. Whiteware will stick slightly to the wet surface of the tongue whereas ironstone wares will not.

Porcelain Porcelain is an extremely hard, fine-grained, nonporous, and usually translucent white ceramic ware which has been fired at high temperatures. Because it is both difficult and expensive to produce, the market for porcelain was relatively small during the early and mid-nineteenth century. It did not become popular in the United States until Germany and Austria began to produce relatively inexpensive porcelain after 1875 (Haskell 1981:23). It finally came into common use after the American porcelain industry began producing even less expensive, and hence, more marketable wares after 1890 (Ketchum 1983:13).

Stoneware Stoneware is "an ordinary earthenware fired at a temperature high enough partially to vitrify the ingredients and make the ware impervious to liquids" (Hughes 1963:89). The pastes of these wares are generally cream to gray or brown in color although much variation can occur even within a single vessel. This color variation is largely due to uneven firing within the kiln. Salt was often added during the firing to produce a glaze which gave the surface of a salt-glazed vessel the appearance of a granular texture similar to that of an orange peel. The gloss of the glaze depended on the amount of salt used: the more salt that was added, the higher the shine and vice versa. Various slips were also used to decorate stoneware vessels. These slips were thin mixtures of water and colored clays which when fired imparted a uniform color to the vessel. Two or more slips were often applied to the same vessel to produce a more ornate decoration. Stonewares are generally nondiagnostic as temporal indicators; however, the mass-produced brown Albany and white Bristol slipped stoneware was very popular during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, whereas the locally made salt-glazed wares were increasingly in less demand during the last half of the nineteenth century (Ketchum 1983).

Temporal Indicators Decorative treatments and motifs also were noted for all the ceramic wares and, where possible, temporal periods were assigned. Mean Ceramic Dates were calculated utilizing South's (1977:217) formula and the temporal ranges. This procedure is based on the known period of manufacture of each ceramic type within the sample, with the midpoint between the beginning and the end of manufacture considered as the median manufacture date (South 1977:202). The Mean Ceramic Date for an assemblage is calculated by multiplying the

median date of a ceramic decoration by the number of sherds of that type. The sum of all the types present within the assemblage are added together with the summation being divided by the total number of sherds to produce the Mean Ceramic Date (South 1977:217-218).

Glass Glass artifacts were classified into one of several categories: (1) whole and fragmented bottles and jars; (2) pressed glass which included, in this case, tableware and canning jar lid liners; and (3) miscellaneous categories of glass which included lantern glass and furniture glass.

Bottles and Jars Bottle glass was analyzed largely according to Deiss's (1981) study of a chronology of American glass and included both intact and fragmented bottles and jars. Bottle glass was further identified as to method of manufacture. Bottle manufacturing methods changed rapidly through the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, and in many cases the new methods and designs were patented. This enables accurate dates to be assigned to many bottles and jars from an analysis of style and method of manufacture. Rogers et al. (1988) have adapted South's (1977) ceramic formula to diagnostic elements of whole and fragmentary bottles and jars. Again, this procedure is based on the known period of manufacture of each diagnostic bottle type within the sample, with the midpoint between the beginning and the end of manufacture again being considered as the median date. The mean bottle date for an assemblage is calculated by multiplying the median date of a diagnostic element by the number of fragments of that type. The sum of all types present within the assemblage is then added together with the summation being divided by the total number of items used in the calculation to produce the mean bottle date for that site.

Glass bottles were further identified as to functional type such as food preservation and medicine, soft drink, or alcohol containers. Bottle part, color, embossing, and manufacturer's marks were also noted.

Pressed Glass Pressed glass was analyzed according to Deiss's (1981) study of American glassware especially in regard to nineteenth and early-twentieth century manufacturing techniques. Unfortunately, pressed glass has long, nondiscrete known periods of manufacture. Its use is therefore limited as an aid in identifying occupation dates. Pressed glass was further identified as to functional type (i.e., tableware and lid liners), vessel part (if applicable), and color . . .

Miscellaneous Glass In this study, miscellaneous glass includes both lantern glass and furniture glass. As with pressed glass, the long known periods of manufacture and/or use of these artifacts preclude the usefulness of this subclass of artifacts in dating the occupation of a site. The chief value of the identification of functionally related glass such as lantern glass within an assemblage is as an aid in determining site types.

Metal Metal artifacts were classified according to material of manufacture (i.e., zinc, aluminum, brass, and iron) and specific function. If pertinent (e.g., metal trade items such as

rings, bracelets, kettles, earrings, and so on), the method of manufacture also was noted when possible. Metal artifacts with long known periods of manufacture, such as zinc canning jar lids and square nails, are of little use as temporal indicators. They are, however, useful in determining site type.

Other As noted earlier, this artifact class consisted of construction materials such as brick, limestone, mortar, slate, and daub. In addition, heating coal and the resultant cinders and clinkers are also considered in this artifact class. Other functionally related artifacts include bone utensil handles (kitchen), bone buttons (clothing), gun flint (arms), and transportation (harness leather). Prehistoric material (if recovered from a historic context) also was included in this artifact class.

Curation

The recovered artifacts are being curated temporarily at the facilities of American Resources Group, Ltd., in Carbondale, Illinois. This allows for accessibility to materials during the analysis and report writing phases. In accordance with the Project Scope of Work, all maps, field notes, and other documents will be submitted to the Kansas State Historic Society, Topeka, Kansas, for permanent curation. A copy of American Resources Group, Ltd.'s, curation agreement with that institution is contained in Appendix C. The artifacts will either be curated at the Kansas State Historic Society or, in accordance with Section 7 of the Project Scope of Work (Appendix A; Appendix A, Exhibit 12), returned to the individual landowners if the landowners so desire. Landowners include: Peggy Navarre Plantamura owner of Site 14SH359, with Duane Parr being the tenant farmer; the Unified School District #321; and William Righter owner of Site 14SH351.

Chapter IV: Archaeological and Historical Background

Mark J. Wagner

Introduction

Contemporary approaches to cultural resource management emphasize the importance of placing archaeological and historic properties in contexts that include a broad range of related properties classified into defined property types. A historic context is a theoretical construct defined as ". . . an organizational format that groups information about related historic properties based on a theme, geographic limits, and chronological period" (*Federal Register* 1983:44718).

The Office of Archaeological Research of the Museum of Anthropology of the University of Kansas has addressed the planning requirements of the federal preservation laws and regulations by developing the *Kansas Prehistoric Archaeological Preservation Plan* (Brown and Simmons 1987). The Preservation Plan divided Kansas into ten natural geographic study units based on physiographic subprovinces. The Rossville area is contained within the Glaciated Region of northeastern Kansas. Prehistoric sites within the study unit are further classified by general temporal periods and regional phases or complexes where these have been defined. These cultural and temporal entities, which can serve as historic contexts, are discussed in more detail below.

Prehistoric Archaeological Context

The regionally applicable prehistoric cultural sequence developed thus far for the Glaciated Region of northeastern Kansas is divided into the following periods: Paleoindian (10,000-6,000 B.C.), Archaic (6,000-1,000 B.C.), Early Ceramic (A.D. 1-900), Middle Ceramic (A.D. 900-1,500), Late Ceramic (A.D. 1500-1825), and Reservation Period (A.D. 1825-1900) (Brown and Simmons 1987; O'Brien 1984).

Paleoindian occupations in the Glaciated Region of northeastern Kansas are represented by the recovery of distinctive Clovis, Folsom, Plano, Hell Gap, and Meserve/Dalton projectile points as isolated specimens from site surfaces or from gravel and sand bars (Brown and Brown 1987:IX-18; O'Brien 1984:27-37). Only two Paleoindian sites in Kansas have been investigated, and information regarding this period is mainly based on archaeological excavations in other states. The Llano (10,000-9,000 B.C.) complex is characterized by an economy based on the hunting of large herd animals and the possible collecting of plant foods. Llano social groups probably consisted of small bands of 25 or 30 people who followed a pattern of nomadic or semi-nomadic existence (O'Brien 1984:35). The succeeding Folsom complex (9,000-8,000 B.C.) is represented by the association of fluted projectile points with extinct forms of fauna such as

Bison antiquus, *Equus* sp., and *Camelops*. The 12-Mile Creek site, at which a possible Folsom projectile point was found in association with fossil bison remains, is the only site from this complex yet investigated in Kansas (Brown and Brown 1987:IX-9-12; O'Brien 1984:28-29). The Plano period (8,000-6,000 B.C.) is characterized by an increase in the number and diversity of projectile points, the development of highly effective hunting techniques, and evidence of a mixed hunting and foraging economy (O'Brien 1984:32). Extinct forms of bison are associated with the earliest Plano complexes with modern fauna associated with all Plano complexes by 7,000 B.C. (Brown and Brown 1987:IX-12). Evidence of mass bison kills in which bison were surrounded and killed or driven off steep embankments to their death occur during this period. O'Brien (1984:33) suggests that because of the amount of labor needed to implement mass bison kills, Plano society was probably organized on a band level with individual endogamous bands probably numbering 75-100 people. The Meserve/Dalton complex (8,000-7,000 B.C.) in Kansas is associated primarily with the wooded habitats of the eastern part of the state. Subsistence economies during this period consisted of the exploitation of seasonally available faunal and floral resources. Settlement patterns are suggested to have included base camps and special activity sites contained with large areal territories (O'Brien 1984:36).

Archaic occupations documented for the Glaciated Region of northeastern Kansas include the Black Vermillion (3,700-2,900 B.C.) and Nebo Hill (2,000-1,000 B.C.) phases (Brown 1987c:XIV-1). Culturally diagnostic artifacts associated with the Black Vermillion phase include triangular basal or corner notched points and lanceolate points similar to those of the Nebo Hill phase; subsistence activities are suggested to have been characterized by a diffuse economy that included the hunting and gathering of a variety of wild food resources. Sites are located on terraces above well-established streams (Brown 1987c:XIV-4). Nebo Hill phase (2,000-1,000 B.C.) subsistence activities are thought to have included the hunting and gathering of wild foods as well as the possible cultivation of squash and the bottle gourd. Culturally diagnostic artifacts associated with this phase include the Nebo Hill point type and fiber tempered ceramics. The settlement pattern is suggested to have consisted of large warm weather sites in the uplands and smaller cold weather sites in the lowlands; ridge top cemeteries also occur (Brown 1987b:XIII-3).

Early Ceramic (A.D. 1-1000) complexes in the Glaciated Region of northeastern Kansas include the Valley variant, Kansas City Hopewell variant, Deer Creek phase, Wakarusa phase, Grasshopper Falls phase, and an unnamed Kansas City Late Woodland phase (Brown 1987c:XIV-1). The Valley complex (50 B.C.-A.D. 400) is the earliest known Plains Woodland manifestation; it may also be related to Kansas City Hopewell (Brown 1987c:XIV-19). The settlement pattern consists of large villages adjacent to stream confluences with ancillary camps located along smaller streams above these villages. Other site types include limestone construction burial mounds that contain evidence of social stratification and possible human sacrifice (O'Brien 1984:48). Subsistence activities included both the hunting of large mammals such as the bison and smaller game as well as possible agriculture. Kansas City Hopewell (A.D. 1-750) sites are located along the Missouri River in northeast Kansas and northwest Missouri and along the lower Kansas River and its tributaries (Brown 1987c:XIV-7). Kansas City Hopewell

has been interpreted as having its origin in the Hopewellian complexes of the eastern United States, with Hopewellian peoples from Illinois migrating up the Missouri River to the Kansas City area (O'Brien 1984:45, 48; Wedel 1943). Other researchers have suggested that rather than an actual migration from Illinois, indigenous Middle Woodland groups in the Kansas City area may have been interacting with and influenced by Hopewellian groups to the east (Johnson 1979:86-93). Ceramic motifs include such Illinois Hopewellian design elements as crosshatching, punctations, dentate and rocker stamping, nodes, and incised lines (Brown 1987c:XIV- 8). The settlement pattern consists of large (1-6 ha) villages located along the tributaries of the Missouri River with smaller (<1 ha) camps located above the villages. Burial mounds consisting of earthen mounds covering central stone construction vaults are located above the village sites (Johnson 1979:87). Subsistence activities included the cultivation of maize, squash, and marsh elder combined with a hunting-foraging economy.

Sites of the Grasshopper Falls phase (A.D. 500-1000) are located along river drainages in the glaciated area of northeastern Kansas with small groups of oval houses located upon the terraces of tributary streams. External hearths and shallow pits are located adjacent to the structures (Brown 1987c:XIV 23-24). Subsistence activities included the hunting of large and small game animals and the collection of wild plant foods. Ceramics consist of grit-tempered wares with cordmarked and smoothed surfaces; vessel types include medium to large jars with thickened conoidal bases and smaller globular vessels (Brown 1987c:XIV 25). O'Brien (1984:45) suggests that the Grasshopper Falls phase succeeds the earlier Valley phase and may represent an addition by indigenous groups of eastern Woodland elements to an Archaic lifestyle.

The Wakarusa (A.D. 1-1000) and Deer Creek phases (A.D. 1-750) as presently defined are limited to the Wakarusa River drainage in the southern part of the Glaciated Region and the northern part of the Osage Cuestas (Brown 1987c:XIII-22). The Wakarusa phase settlement pattern consists of isolated houses located on slight rises on small terraces above small streams; houses consist of wattle and daub covered pole structures. Mortuary patterns are unknown. Ceramics consist of grit- and sand-tempered jars with widely spaced vertical cordmarking. Subsistence activities consisted of the hunting and collecting of wild animal and plant foods. The Wakarusa phase is interpreted as an indigenous development out of the preceding Archaic cultures; its disappearance may be due to development into the later Plains Village or Plains Woodland cultures (Brown 1987b:XIII-22). Deer Creek phase sites are situated on terraces along small streams. Mortuary patterns and structure types are unknown. Ceramics associated with this phase consist of thick grit-tempered pottery similar to that of the Wakarusa phase. Subsistence patterns are suggested to have consisted of the hunting and gathering of wild food resources. Deer Creek phase lithics are similar to those of the Wakarusa phase with the addition of small corner-notched arrow points. The later Plains Woodland and Plains Village cultures are suggested to have developed out of the Deer Creek phase (Brown 1987b:XIII-25).

An unnamed Late Woodland phase (A.D. 700-900) has been defined for northeastern Kansas on the basis of the similarity of materials recovered from a surface context that have been dated to A.D. 695 and A.D. 820 in the Kansas City area (Brown 1987c:XIV-29). This phase is

suggested to have developed out of the preceding Kansas City Hopewell phase; its eventual disappearance is attributed to its development into the later Plains Village cultures. The settlement pattern consists of small sites of one or two houses located along major tributary streams of the Kansas and Missouri rivers; site types are suggested to have included both hunting and gathering camps and farmsteads. Culturally diagnostic materials include granite and grog-tempered cordmarked or smoothed subconical jars. Projectile points include small triangular and lanceolate stemmed or corner-notched artifacts. The subsistence economy consisted of the hunting and gathering of wild foods (Brown 1987c:XIV- 29-32).

Middle Ceramic cultures in the Glaciated Region of northeastern Kansas include the Steed-Kisker, Nebraska, Smoky Hill, and Pomona variants (Brown 1987c:XIV-1). The Steed-Kisker variant (A.D. 1000-1250) shows strong Mississippian influence and has been variously interpreted as representing an actual migration from the Cahokia site (O'Brien 1984:58) or the result of Mississippian interaction with an indigenous Central Plains group. O'Brien (1978:15-17) has suggested that the settlement pattern consists of single or multiple family farmsteads comprised of a habitation structure and associated trash and storage areas, family cemeteries represented by bluff top burial mounds located adjacent to the habitation sites, storage sites located near agricultural fields or natural resource areas, and hunting and butchering camps. The subsistence economy included the raising of agricultural plants such as corn, beans, squash, and sunflower with wild plants of minor importance; bison and deer were important food animals (O'Brien 1984:57). Steed-Kisker habitations include semi-subterranean earth lodges with extended entrance ramps, earth lodges without entrance ramps, and Mississippian-like wall trench structures (Brown 1987c:XIV-33). Ceramics associated with the Steed-Kisker complex show evidence of external influence in the form of Southeastern Ceremonial complex motifs including the weeping eye, cross, and sunburst motifs (O'Brien 1984:58). Ramey incised ceramics and polished black vessels suggestive of Cahokian ceramics have also been recovered from Steed-Kisker sites (Brown 1987c:XIV-33). Vessel types include shell-tempered jars, bowls, and water bottles. Diagnostic projectile point types include small side- and basal-notched arrow points. The Steed-Kisker phase has an end date of approximately A.D. 1250. Various interpretations for the disappearance of this culture include migration out of the area (O'Brien 1984:4), extinction, or absorption by other Central Plains groups (Brown 1987c:XIV-34-35).

The Nebraska and Smoky Hill variants comprise part of what is known as the Central Plains tradition (Brown 1987c:XIV-44). These variants exhibit characteristics reflective of a similar lifestyle including the Plains earth lodge, a square semi-subterranean structure with a central fire place and four large support posts (O'Brien 1984:59). In Kansas, Nebraska variant (A.D. 1050-1425) sites are found along the Missouri River and its larger tributaries in the glaciated region of northeastern Kansas. Site types and the intensity of occupation at sites vary. Isolated earth lodges are spaced about 1 km apart along drainages, while sites with from 3 to 10 earth lodges are spaced several miles apart. Mortuary patterns consist of communal interment in ossuaries. Agriculture was an important part of the economy; crops included maize, beans, and squash. Wild plant food collecting and hunting were also means of obtaining food, and families are believed to have gone on seasonal bison hunts (Brown 1987c:XIV-44). The ceramic

assemblage is fairly complex with grit and shell tempered subtypes that contain a variety of vessel forms and rim treatments (Brown 1987c:XIV-46).

The Smoky Hills variant (A.D. 900-1500) of the Central Plains culture is centered in north central Kansas in the upper Kansas River and the lower Republican, Solomon, and Smoky Hill River drainages. Sites consist of isolated houses, small hamlets of three to four houses, and larger semi-permanent villages. Mortuary patterns consist of the interment of extended or flexed burials in earthen mounds. Structures consist of square to rectangular earth lodges with central fireplaces, extended entrance ways, and interior support posts. Subsistence activities consisted of agriculture, hunting, and the collection of wild plants. Both shell and sand-tempered wares are represented in the ceramic assemblage; vessel forms include jars and bowls.

The Pomona variant (A.D. 960-1430) primarily is located in the Osage Cuestas region of Kansas but is also known from the Glaciated Region, Osage Cuestas, Chautauqua Hills, and Cherokee Lowlands (Brown 1987b:XIII-38). It appears to represent an indigenous development from preceding Woodland cultures in southeastern and east central Kansas (Witty 1981). The settlement pattern is characterized by sites containing either one house or one to three houses located on low elevation stream and river terraces and floodplains; bluff top sites also have been reported (Brown 1987a:XII-37). Houses are dissimilar to those of the Central Plains tradition, being light construction pole structures rather than earth lodges. Subsistence patterns consisted of the cultivation of maize, squash, sunflower, and beans; hunting of large game animals including bison; and the collection of wild plant foods. Four phases (Clinton, Wolf Creek, May Brook, and Apple Valley) have been defined within the Pomona variant on the basis of variation within the lithic and ceramic assemblages. The disappearance of the Pomona phase at ca. A.D. 1450 is not well understood. It has been suggested, however, that descendants of the Pomona variant will be found in northeastern Kansas or southeastern Nebraska (Brown 1987b:XIII-37).

Two Late Ceramic cultures, Oneota and Kansa, are defined for the Glaciated Region with the historic Kansa believed to be lineal descendants of the prehistoric Oneota peoples in northeastern Kansas. Oneota/Kansa settlement patterns consist of large and small villages located on terraces along major rivers and streams; houses consisted of earth lodges and bark-covered rectangular houses (Brown 1987c:XIV-52). Mortuary patterns included the interment of individuals on bluff tops or terraces in extended or flexed positions in limestone construction graves when this material was available. Subsistence patterns consisted of growing beans, maize, and squash; communal bison hunting; small game hunting; and wild plant collecting (Brown 1987c:XIV-53). Culturally diagnostic material included shell-tempered globular vessels with plain or incised and trailed decoration on the shoulders. Historic European trade materials are occasionally recovered in association with Oneota materials. In Kansas, the regional Oneota culture is believed to have developed into the historic Kansa who inhabited the state during the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. The Kansa were removed to Oklahoma in 1873 (Brown 1987c:XIV-52-53).

Historic Context

In recent years the Secretary of the Interior has placed increasing emphasis on the development of local or regional historic contexts that provide a rational framework through which the significance of cultural properties such as historical archaeological sites can be evaluated (Federal Register 1983). A historic context is "a body of information about historic properties organized by theme, place, and time . . . a context may be based on one or a series of events or activities, patterns of community development, or associations with the life of a person or a group of persons that influenced the destiny and character of a region . . . contexts may be organized according to broad patterns of development and general periods of time, such as early settlement or community development in the 19th century" (U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Interagency Resources Division 1986:7).

The Secretary of the Interior has published standards and guidelines that establish historic context as the foundation of the preservation planning process and a framework through which decisions about the National Register eligibility of individual cultural properties could be made. Historic context can be used to determine the significance of cultural properties and to guide decisions regarding survey methods, protection strategies, and preservation activities. Historic contexts are dynamic constructs that can and should be revised as new information is gathered and new site types identified (USDI/NPS/IRD 1986:8).

Historic contexts are linked with historic archaeological sites through the concept of "property type." A property type is a "grouping of properties based on a set of shared physical or associative characteristics. Physical characteristics may relate to structural forms, architectural styles, building materials or site types . . . a property type may include a variety of buildings or may be based on distinguishable structural types or functions" (USDI/NPS/IRD 1983:8).

The determination of whether individual property types within a particular area, meet the National Register criteria should be based on a consideration of the relationship of the property type to the historic context of the region. The historic context can maximize existing information and data about a region, point out gaps in information regarding the region, and organize data and evaluation criteria in a useful manner. By viewing property types in relation to historic context, focusing on those properties with the potential to provide data on areas where information is lacking is possible, and avoid repetitive research on similar property types (USDI/NPS/IRD 1986:10).

State Guidelines on Historic Context

Guidelines for the evaluation of the NRHP significance of historical archaeological sites are presented in the Kansas Preservation Plan Section on Historical Archaeology (Lees 1989). Modeled after the National Park Service's Resource Protection Planning Process (RP3), the plan

offers study units, cultural units, themes, and research questions for the investigation of the state's past. As stated in that document, for a site to be significant it must be demonstrated that the site is of a type that has the potential to provide information important to one or more questions of current research interest. Second, it must be demonstrated that the information needed is preserved at the specific site in question.

Five chronologically based study units were defined in the historical archaeology section of the Kansas Preservation Plan to provide cultural contexts for the evaluation of historical archaeological sites (Lees 1989). These were: (1) Exploration and Contact with Native Americans (1541-1820); (2) Exploration and Settlement (1820-1865); (3) Period of Rural and Agricultural Dominance (1865-1900); (4) Time of Contrasts (1900-1939); (5) The Recent Past (1939-Present). Each of these study units represents a period in which major changes in the history of Kansas occurred. Five research contexts; historical particularism, reconstruction of past lifeways, processual studies, archaeological science, and direct historical approach for the investigation of historical archaeological resources associated with each of the study units also were defined. These research contexts were defined as:

"a statement of problem domains or specific research topics which are of current interest in the state or to which research could be productively applied . . . these research questions can . . . be used to structure research, to define the sites of interest and to validate significance evaluations" (Lees 1989:75).

Historic Context of Project Area

The project area is located within a section of the former Kansas (or Kaw) River Potawatomi Reservation (1848-1863) settled by Metis families associated with the Potawatomi "Mission" or "Citizen" Band (Clifton 1977). The potential NRHP significance of: (1) the three historical sites (14SH348, 351 and 359) to be investigated as part of this contract; and (2) any other nineteenth century historical sites located by the survey, will largely be based on their potential to provide information on nineteenth century Potawatomi lifeways in Kansas.

In the following section, historical information regarding the Potawatomi is presented to create a cultural context for the project area and provide a setting for the research questions that can be examined through the archaeological test investigations. Following that, the historic background of the individual sites is presented.

The Potawatomi The Potawatomi are an Algonquin speaking group who lived in the area of Lake Huron in the early 1600s. Starting in the mid-1600s, the Potawatomi began a series of migrations westward as a result of pressure from the Iroquois. By the 1650s the French reported contacting large settlements of Potawatomi on the western shore of Lake Michigan and near modern-day Green Bay, Wisconsin. During the late seventeenth century the Potawatomi began migrating southward from Green Bay, ultimately settling in a crescent around southern Lake

Michigan in the modern-day states of Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Indiana (Figure 2) (Murphy 1988:3-4).

During the late seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, Jesuit priests established missions among the Potawatomi as part of French efforts to gain control of the upper Great Lakes region. Although expelled from Canada after the end of the French and Indian War in 1763, the Jesuits returned to the Potawatomi of the St. Joseph River valley in 1830 (Clark 1979:377). Their receptiveness to the Jesuits eventually resulted in the St. Joseph River Potawatomi being referred to as the "Mission Band" Potawatomi. The Mission Band included a high proportion of Metis families whose skill in the fur trade enabled them to prosper economically.

Extensive intermarriage with French traders during the late seventeenth and early eighteenth century resulted in a large mixed-blood or Metis population among the Potawatomi of southern Michigan, northern Illinois, and northern Indiana (Hacker 1989:80). As noted by Peterson (1978:46) the term Metis "designates less a racial category than an incipient ethnic group, entry into which could be acquired through marriage and self-designation, as well as birth." Peterson (1978:41) has characterized the Great Lakes Metis as intercultural brokers and economic middlemen who linked Native American groups and Anglo-American patrons involved in the fur trade. On the Euroamerican side, these Metis were descended from Canadian fur traders who arrived in the Great Lakes region after 1695 at a time when conflict between the Iroquois and the Huron and Ottawa over the fur trade had resulted in a political and economic vacuum in the area. Seizing the opportunity, the fur traders and their Metis children established themselves as brokers between the Native American groups to the northwest and the Euroamerican society to the east "functioning primarily as traders, voyageurs, and clerks who journeyed to and lived among their native clients" (Peterson 1978:55). Similar to Wolf's (1956) characterization of cultural brokers as buffers between antagonistic groups, the Great Lakes Metis also shielded Native American groups from Euroamerican pressure to change their traditional way of life by instead changing their own lifestyles (Peterson 1978:55). The high degree of acculturation exhibited by the Metis of the Mission Band Potawatomi earned the band the sobriquet of being "progressive" in contrast to the more traditional full-blooded Potawatomi who resisted Euroamerican influences (Hacker 1989:81) (Table 1).

Continued intermarriage with Native American women throughout the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries provided the Metis with kin and commercial ties to Native American families and groups that were essential to the perpetuation of their role as cultural brokers. Metis sons were likely to marry Native American women to reinforce kin ties to local bands as well as to establish new links with more distant bands. One Metis family, for example, had ties through marriage to the Ojibway, Winnebago, and Menomini while another had ties to the Potawatomi, Sioux, and Ottawa. Metis daughters, in contrast, often married other Metis, an arrangement that linked the dominant Metis lineages of the Great Lakes regions (Peterson 1982:55, 59). Metis daughters also married incoming Euroamericans, absorbing these potential competitors into the group (Peterson 1978:58).

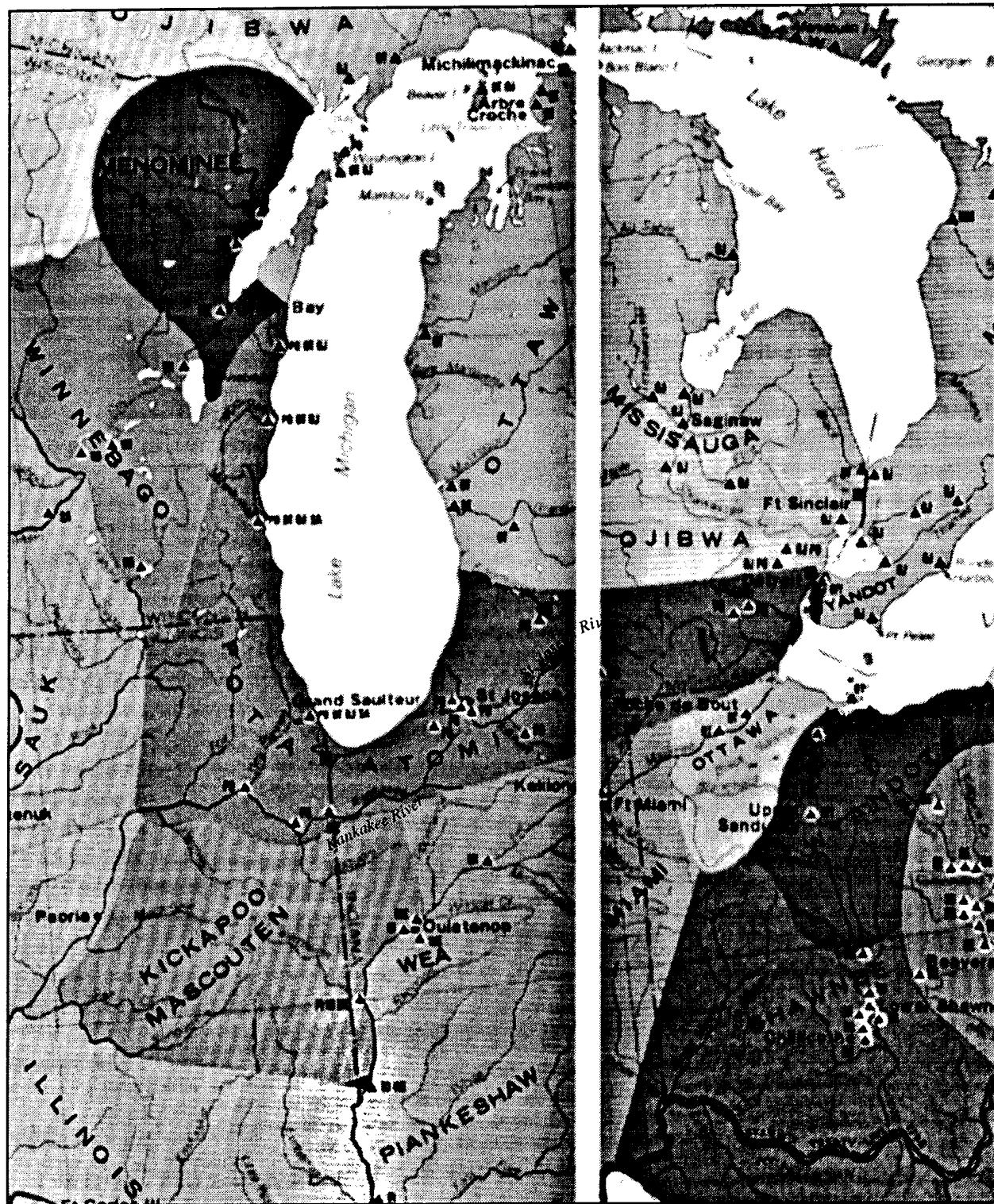


Figure 2. Location of Potawatomi, circa 1768 (adapted from Tanner 1986: Map 13).

Table 1. Movement of the Potawatomi between 1830 and 1867.

Potawatomi Movement						
Mission or Citizen Band Moved From Moved To	Agency or Reserve Name	Band	Date	Prairie Band Moved From Moved To	Agency or Reserve Name	Band
Great Lakes Area Indiana/Southern Michigan	St. Joseph River	1st use of "Mission"	1830			
			1833	Northern Illinois Northwest Missouri	Platte Purchase	"Prairie"
			1837	Northwest Missouri Western Iowa	Council Bluffs	"Prairie Potawatomi" & Anglo-Saxon, Scots-Irish, & French Metis
Northwest Indiana Eastern Kansas	Osage River	St Joseph "Mission"	1838			
Western Iowa Eastern Kansas	Osage River	French Metis only	1838			
Eastern Kansas Kansas River	Rossville South of Kaw	St Joseph "Mission" & French Metis	1847	Western Iowa Kansas River	Rossville North of Kaw	"Prairie Potawatomi" & Anglo-Saxon, Scots-Irish, & French Metis
Kansas River Oklahoma	Citizen		1861/63	Kansas River Kansas River	Diminished Reserve	Prairie
			1867			

The Potawatomi movement to the western United States was plagued by difficulties. The incompetency of many of the government officials involved, unhappiness of the Potawatomi with the lands that they had been awarded, and the resistance of many Potawatomi to resettlement made the removal a forcible tortuous process that took almost a decade to accomplish. Over a period of more than 20 years the government removed the Potawatomi to lands located in Missouri, Iowa, and Kansas before finally resettling them on a reservation along the Kansas (Kaw) River in northeastern Kansas.

By the late 1820s the Potawatomi were distributed around the shores of Lake Michigan in northern Illinois and Indiana and southern Michigan (Figure 3). The Great Lakes fur trade in which the Mission Band Potawatomi and other Metis functioned as middlemen, however, was in a state of collapse due to overhunting caused by competition between British and American trading companies. The end of the fur trade was disastrous for the Metis whose skills as cultural brokers were not required by the Euroamerican settlers and businessmen who began to move into the area (Peterson 1978:59-60; 1982:56). At the same time Potawatomi and other Native

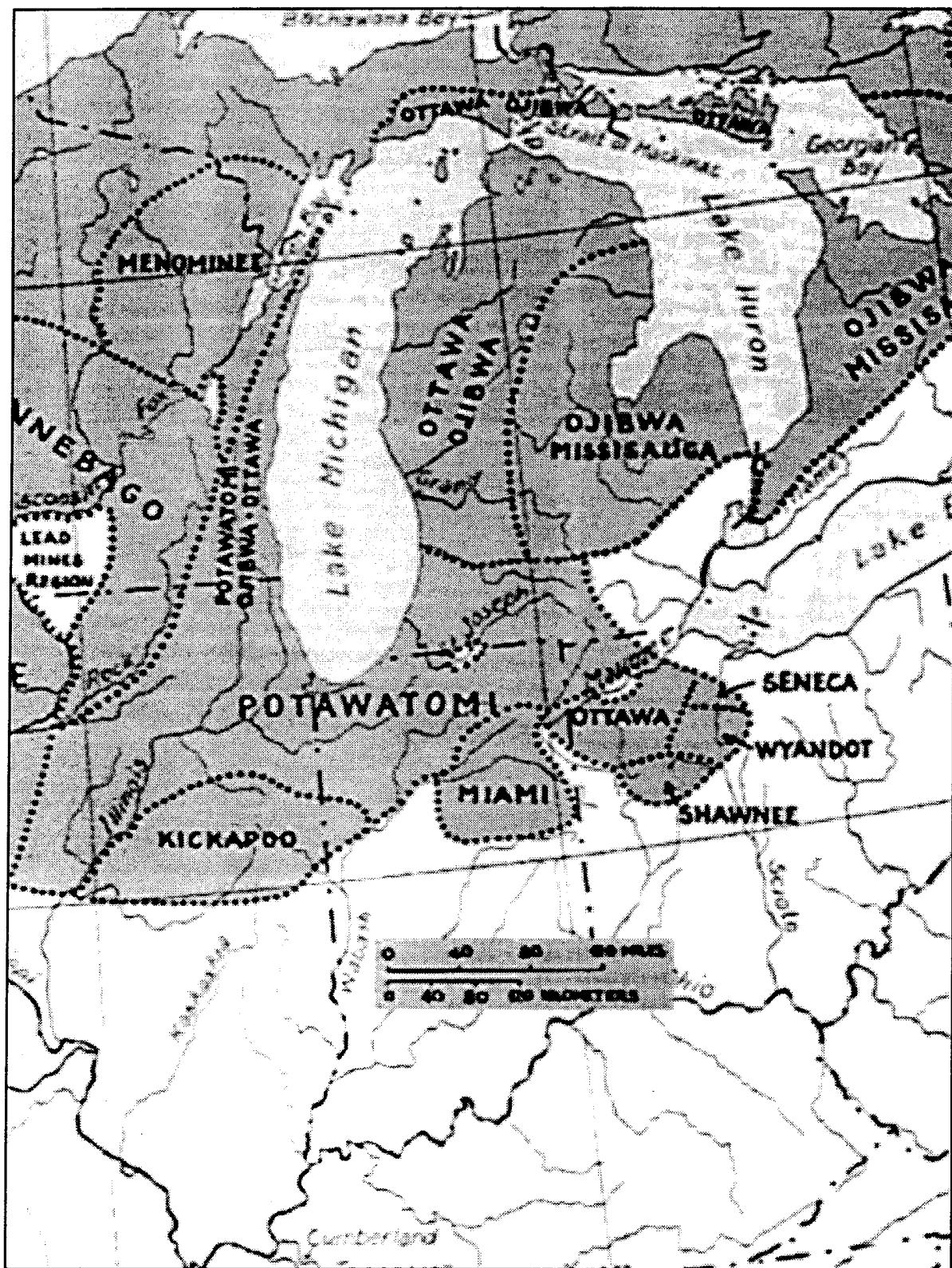


Figure 3. Location of Potawatomi, circa 1830 (adapted from Tanner 1986).

American groups of the Great Lakes region came under increasing pressure to sell their lands and relocate westward. Few were anxious to move and in 1830 Congress passed the Indian Removal Bill which provided for the mandatory removal of the eastern tribes to a western Indian territory. Indian removal provided new life for some of the Metis whose mediational abilities enabled them to function as interpreters, tribal representatives, and negotiators in the treaty negotiations of the early 1830s (Clifton 1977).

The pressure for removal of all Potawatomi to the west increased following the Black Hawk War of 1832, although the majority of the Potawatomi had actively supported American military forces and settlers against Black Hawk (Edmunds 1978:239). Facing the inevitable, Potawatomi representatives signed treaties in 1832 and 1833 ceding all Potawatomi lands in northern Illinois, Indiana, and southern Michigan to the federal government for annuities (annual payments of money), trade merchandise, and new lands in the west (Figure 4) (Edmunds 1978:240-249).

Movements to the Western Reservation

The Potawatomi from northern Illinois under the leadership of Billy Caldwell voluntarily moved to the Platte Purchase of northwestern Missouri in 1833. Even though the government had agreed to Potawatomi settlement in this area during the Tippecanoe Treaty negotiations of 1833, resistance to Potawatomi settlement in this area by Missouri politicians led to deletion of this agreement before the treaty was ratified in 1835 (Edmunds 1978:249). In July and August of 1837 the federal government forcibly removed 1,450 Potawatomi from the Platte Purchase area to a new subagency at Council Bluffs, Iowa. By August 1837, subagent Edwin James estimated there were 2,500 Potawatomi in the vicinity of the reservation (Clifton 1977:321).

Great animosity developed on the Council Bluffs reservation between the Potawatomi and Anglo-American mixed bloods on one side and the mixed bloods of French descent on the other, also the Potawatomi full bloods disputed the claims of the Metis of French descent to tribal membership, a share of the annuity payments, and other tribal resources (Clifton 1977:282). In 1838, under the leadership of Billy Caldwell, the Potawatomi expelled the majority of the French Metis from the Council Bluffs reservation. The Potawatomi who remained at Council Bluffs (i.e., the Potawatomi from northern Illinois) were known as the "Prairie Potawatomi" and are the ancestors of the present-day Prairie Band Potawatomi of Kansas.

The French Metis expelled from Council Bluffs resettled on the Osage Reserve in Kansas along the Osage River where they joined the highly acculturated "Woods Potawatomi" or "Mission Band Potawatomi" (Figure 5). The Osage Reservation had been established for these Indiana Potawatomi as one of the provisions of the Treaty of 1837. In this treaty the Kankakee, Wabash, and St. Joseph Potawatomi bands of Indiana exchanged their lands in that state for a reservation in Kansas. The largest migrations of Potawatomi from Indiana to the Osage River or "Mission Bands" Reserve occurred in 1838 and 1840 (Murphy 1988:59).

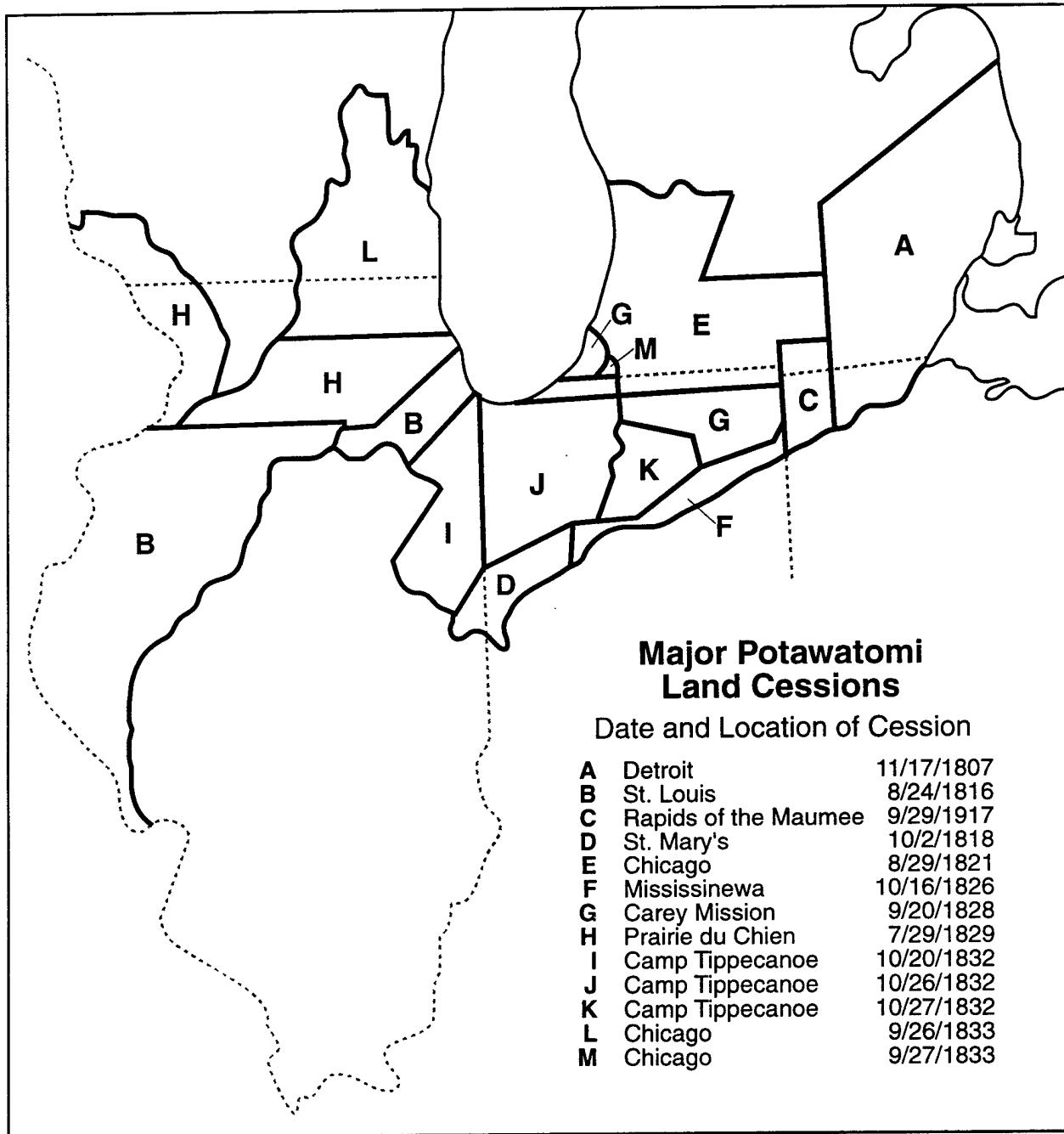


Figure 4. Potawatomi land cessions.

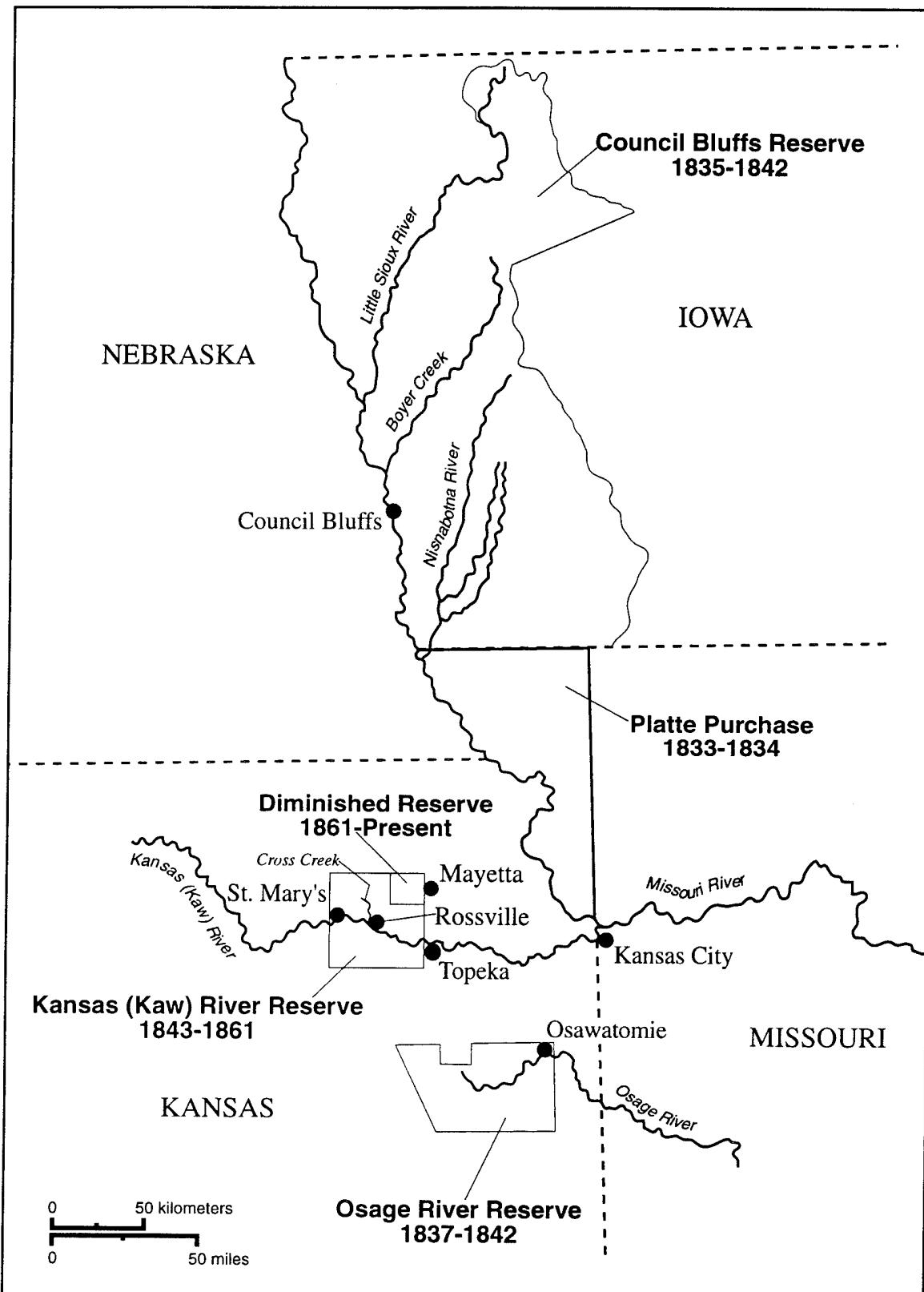


Figure 5. Potawatomi reservations in the west.

The population on the Osage Reserve peaked in 1840 at approximately 2,500 Metis and Potawatomi, declining to 1,949 in 1842 (Murphy 1988: 67, 76).

As the Euroamerican population of Iowa increased, mounting pressure was put on the Potawatomi at Council Bluffs to cede their lands and move to a new reservation in Kansas (Clifton 1977:329-330). In 1847, yet another treaty required that both the Potawatomi at Council Bluffs and those on the Osage Reserve move to a new reservation bisected by the Kansas (or Kaw) River (Figure 5) (Clifton 1977:317). Although one of the goals of the federal government was to reunite the Potawatomi on this reservation, the traditional Prairie Band Potawatomi chose to settle north of the Kansas River while the highly acculturated Mission Band settled south of the river.

The Treaty of 1861 resulted in the legal separation of the Potawatomi into two bands, the Citizen and Prairie bands. This treaty, in which the Kansas River Reservation was to be broken up into individual allotments, was greatly favored by the Metis, Indian agents, and missionaries. The purported goal of the allotment was to turn the Potawatomi into self-sufficient farmers on individual farmsteads similar to American farmers. The Prairie Band opposed the treaty and refused to take part in the allotment. The Mission Band, comprised predominantly of missionized Potawatomi and Metis, gave up their tribal status and became United States citizens or members of the "Citizen Band." In return, approximately 150,000 acres of their reservation was divided among the Citizen Band with each man, woman, and child receiving an individual allotment. The Prairie Band was given a reduced reservation of 77,000 acres in the northeastern corner of the original reserve to be held in common by the members of the band (Figure 5). The remaining 346,000 acres of the reservation was to be sold to the Leavenworth, Pawnee, and Western Railroad Company (Clifton 1977:351).

Allotment proved to be disastrous for the majority of the Citizen Band Metis who either were swindled out of their lands or sold them to Euroamerican speculators, businessmen, and settlers within a very short period of time. Reduced to penury, a number of the Citizen Band were taken in as servants or laborers by the Prairie Band. In 1867, in response to the plight of the Citizen Band, Congress established a new reservation for the Citizen Band in Oklahoma.

Euroamerican Settlement near Rossville Euroamericans with family, official, or commercial ties to the Potawatomi had begun to arrive in the Cross Creek area while it was still part of the Potawatomi Reserve. William Dyer and Colonel A.G. Boone operated small stores in the area in the early 1850s. Dr. Robert Gabby, appointed government physician to the Potawatomi, arrived at the Cross Creek settlement in 1861 as did W.W. Ross who had been appointed Indian agent for the Potawatomi (Rossville Centennial Committee 1971:3; Silver Lake Centennial 1971). Annuity payments apparently were made to some of the Potawatomi at the Cross Creek settlement in the late 1850s. The Treaty of 1861 between the Potawatomi and the American government also was negotiated at this location.

In January 1862, James Dahoney applied for a post office in the name of "Rossville" in honor of William Ross, the Indian agent, which was to be located at the existing settlement on

the west side of Cross Creek. On May 18, 1866, the Kansas Pacific Railroad reached this location and a shelter for passengers and a water tank for the steam engine were constructed (Rossville Centennial Committee 1971:5; Silver Lake Centennial Committee 1971:7).

In the early 1870s a group of local businessmen established a new community named "Edna" at the present location of Rossville east of Cross Creek. The land for this new settlement was purchased in 1871 from Anthony Navarre, one of the most prominent Metis, and his Potawatomi wife So-na-ne-qua. The Cross Creek settlers, however, refused to give up their railroad stop until the promoters changed the name of the new town to Rossville.

By the early 1880s Rossville contained a railroad depot, post office, harness shop, doctor's office, steam mill, brick yard, hotel, drug store, general stores, newspaper office, and other businesses (Andreas 1883:590). By 1900 the town had a population of 555 while that of Rossville Township was 954 (Rossville Centennial Committee 1971:9).

Land use within the project area remained agricultural throughout the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Starting in the late 1920s, however, the deteriorating financial conditions that were felt throughout rural America prior to the stock market collapse of 1929 led to a decline in Rossville's fortunes. Construction of new homes within the community stopped entirely from 1926 to 1952 (Silver Lake Centennial 1971:43). During the same time the population of the town decreased by 150. Rossville today is still primarily a small farming community. Land use within the project area is entirely agricultural.

Chapter V: Results of Investigations at Site 14SH359

Mark J. Wagner

Introduction

Site 14SH359 (Figure 1) initially was located by avocational archaeologist Dwight Streeter around 1990. Artifacts present within the cultivated field containing the site indicated that it was the remains of a mid-nineteenth century historic farmstead. In addition, archival information collected by Streeter as well as military buttons and religious medals collected from the site through the use of a metal detector indicated that the site represented the possible location of a Potawatomi farmstead. Using information provided by Streeter, State Archaeologist William B. Lees recorded the site in the Kansas State Historical Site files as Site 14SH359.

Site size was estimated at approximately 40 m x 80 m. Local residents reported that a frame house had been present on the site until about 1970. Keith Navarre, a descendant of a Potawatomi Metis family, who grew up in Rossville, also reported that he believed the site could possibly be the location of an Indian Agency cabin used by Anthony Navarre to pay out government annuities from 1859 to 1870 (Appendix C). Duane Parr, the tenant farmer on the property containing the site, uncovered human remains including cranial and long bone fragments while farming a section of the field approximately one-quarter mile east of Site 14SH359. These remains were turned over to the Kansas State Historical Society but were never analyzed to determine if they were Native American or Euroamerican. The presence of a brass crucifix with the remains, however, strongly suggests that they were the remains of a Catholic Metis or Potawatomi individual.

Current Investigations

The current investigations consisted of a combination of archival research and field investigations. Archival sources consulted during the investigations have been previously presented in Chapter III.

Archival Research

Archival research revealed that the identification of Site 14SH359 as the location of Anthony Navarre's 1858-1870 pay station was incorrect. A telephone conversation with Mr. Keith Navarre revealed that he had based his identification of Site 14SH359 as the pay station on

information in county histories and other secondary sources that placed this building two miles west of Rossville and not on any primary documents (i.e., land records, diaries, etc.) that indicated the pay station was located at 14SH359 (Appendix C).

The archival research conducted as part of the current project indicated that rather than being the Navarre pay station, Site 14SH359 was originally occupied or owned by two Potawatomi Metis families, the Laughtons and the Nadeaus. Information regarding each of these families is presented in the following section.

Laughton Family The Laughton family members who lived at Site 14SH359 during the mid nineteenth century were descended from two Euroamericans David and William Laughton and a Potawatomi woman named Wais-ke-shaw, all of whom lived in northeastern Illinois in the mid to late 1820s and early 1830s (Figure 6).

David, together with his brother Bernardus ("Barney"), was a fur trader associated with the American Fur Company in the Chicago, Illinois, area during the mid to late 1820s and early 1830s. The brothers originally were from the Lake St. Clair area north of Detroit, Michigan. Captain Peter Laughton, a retired British naval officer, may have been their grandfather. On their mother's side they were descended from the Harsen family. Their maternal grandfather was Jacob Harsen, a gunsmith originally from New York. In the late eighteenth century he and son-in-law Isaac Graverat, a silversmith, moved to the Lake St. Clair area for the purpose of trading with the Indians (Stewart 1881:339). In 1818 David Laughton and John R. Smith were operating a trading post in the old Harsen house on Harsen's Island (Stewart 1881:341). Bassman (1936:17) states that Bernardus Laughton operated a trading post at Grand Detour on the Rocky River in Michigan in 1825, but provides no source for this information.

The Laughton brothers are reported to have moved to the Chicago area in 1826 or 1827 where they operated two trading posts and a store (Andreas 1883:107; Bassman 1936:17; Jensen 1953:56). David Laughton's marriage to Wais-ke-shaw, daughter of an important Potawatomi okamek, was part of a characteristic pattern that probably insured that members of Shaw-wa-nass-see's band at Rock Village on the Kankakee River dealt with the Laughton brothers as opposed to other American Fur Company traders in northeastern Illinois.

Wais-ke-shaw was born around 1800. Her father appears to have been Shaw-waw-nas-see (also known as Shawnese) or Southern Fog, one of the "okamek" or principal leaders of the Potawatomi of northern Illinois (Figure 6). Evidence for this is a 1839 baptismal certificate for Wais-ke-shaw that gives her father's name as "Shawnessi," which is phonetically identical to "Shawnese" (Baptismal Record Council Bluffs Mission 1838-1841:34). Shaw-waw-nas-see supported the British during the War of 1812. In January 1814, he led a group of Potawatomi opposed to the Americans to Mackinac Island to plead for British support for the Potawatomi. Although Shaw-waw-nas-see worked with other okamek such as Main Poche, Chebanese, Moran, and Mad Sturgeon to keep the Potawatomi warlike, they were opposed by other okamek who sought peace with the United States (Clifton 1977:214-215).

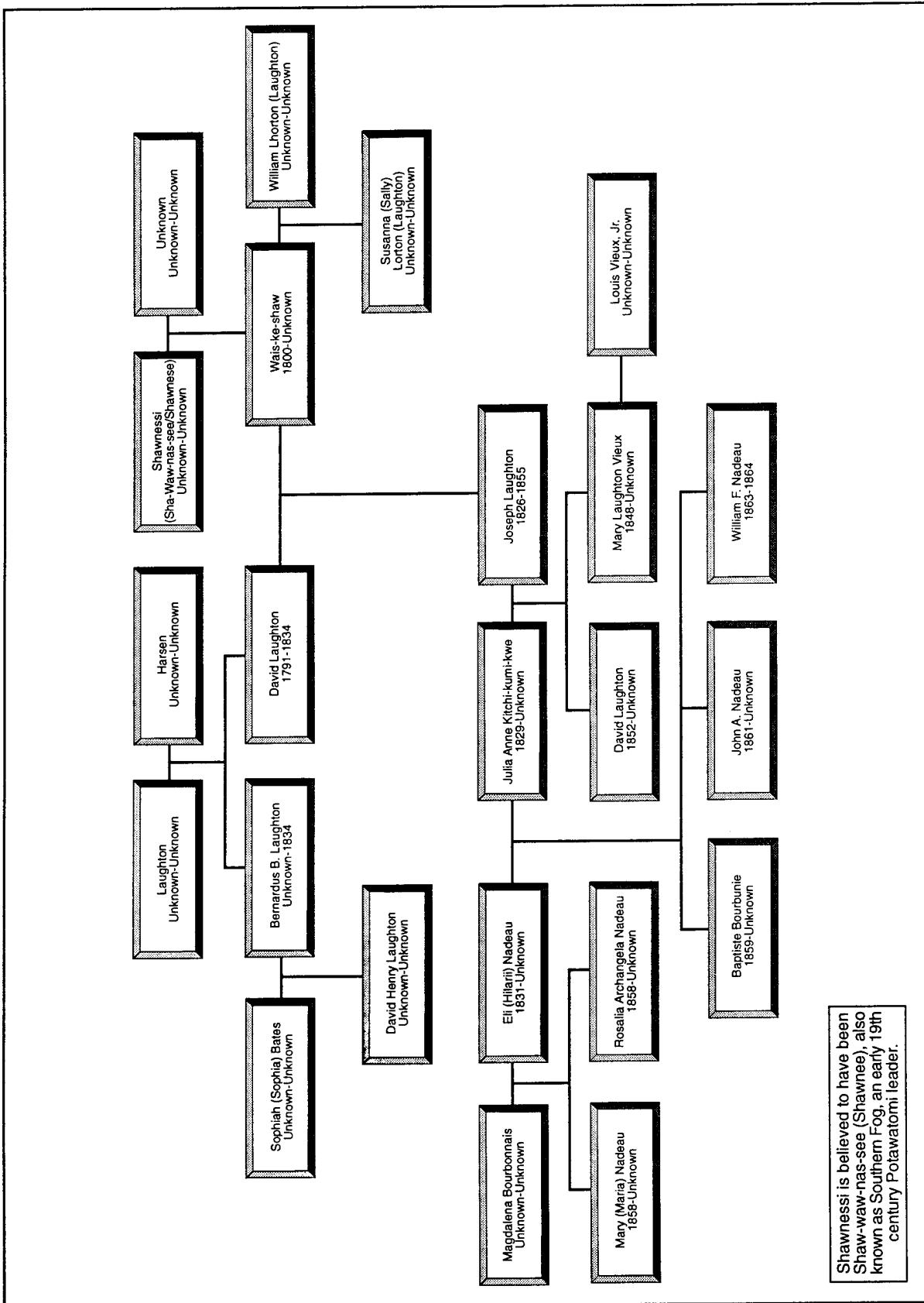


Figure 6. The Laughton-Nadeau family genealogy.

Wais-ke-shaw had at least two children, Joseph by David Laughton and Susanna (Sally) by William Laughton (Figure 6). Joseph Laughton, the son of David Laughton and Wais-ke-shaw was born about 1826 (BRCBM 1838-1841:31). In 1828, however, while David was still alive, a daughter named Susanna (Sally) was born to Wais-ke-shaw and William Lhorton (Laughton) (BRCBM 1838-1841:34).

During the late 1820s the Potawatomi faced increasing pressure from the United States government and Euroamerican settlers to sell their lands and move westward. The Potawatomi ceded varying amounts of land to the federal government in a series of six treaties negotiated between 1827 and 1832 (Clifton 1977:228). The Laughton (also spelled Lorton) family name appears in the Prairie du Chein treaty of July 29, 1829, between the United States and the "United Nations of Chippewa, Ottawa and Potawatamie [sic] Indians, of the waters of the Illinois, Miluakee, and Manitouck Rivers" (Fay 1971:76). In that treaty several tracts of land were reserved for specific members of the Potawatomi tribe including:

To Wais-kee-Shaw, a Potawatamie [sic] woman, wife of David Laughton, and to her child, one and a half sections at the old village of Nay-ou-Say, at or near the source of the Riviere aux Sables of the Illinois (Fay 1971:77).

The Riviere aux Sables is a small tributary of the Illinois River in northeastern Illinois. The junction of the Riviere aux Sables and the Illinois River is located approximately five miles east of the present day town of Morris in Grundy County.

The sex and name of Wais-kee-Shaw's and David Laughton's child were not specified in the treaty. However, as Susanna (Sally) Laughton's father was William Laughton, the child specified in the treaty apparently was Joseph Laughton who would have been about three years of age then.

Two tracts of land were reserved for the children of Wais-ke-shaw in the Treaty of 1832 Camp Tippecanoe, Indiana, between the United States and the "Potawatamie Tribe of Indians of the Prairie and Kankakee." This treaty was signed mainly by northern Illinois Potawatomi, although a few Potawatomi from southern Wisconsin also signed (Clifton 1977:234-235). As with the Prairie du Chein treaty of 1830 a number of tracts were deeded over to various individuals of "Indian blood or descent." One of the individuals who received land as the result of the 1832 treaty was six year old Joseph Laughton, who was deeded a tract in northeastern Illinois:

For Joseph Laughton, son of Wais-ke-shaw, one section, and for Ce-na-ge-wine, one section, both to be located at Twelve Mile Grove, or Na-be-na-qui-nong (Fay 1971:80).

Ce-na-ge-wine also may have been a child of Wias-ke-shaw. Evidence of this is that a change was made in the clause cited above in the final version of the treaty. Rather than reserving separate tracts for Joseph Laughton and Ce-ne-ga-wine, the final version of the treaty read:

For the children of Wais-ke-shaw, two sections, to include the small grove of timber on the river above Rock village (Kappler 1973:353, 355-356).

As noted in Chapter III, the Potawatomi of northern Illinois and southern Wisconsin ceded their lands to the federal government in exchange for new lands in the west in the 1830s. In September 1835, a group of 700 Potawatomi under the leadership of the famous mixed blood leader Billy Caldwell departed Chicago for the Platte area of western Missouri opposite Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. In September 1836, a second group of 750 departed from a removal camp on the Des Plaines River, joining Billy Caldwell's group in November of the same year. Billy Caldwell was an old acquaintance of David and Bernardus Laughton, and Wais-ke-shaw, Joseph Laughton, and Susanna (Sally) Laughton almost certainly must have accompanied one of these two groups.

On May 31, 1838, Fathers Felix Verreydt and Pierre-Jean de Smet and Brother Andrew Mazelli arrived to establish a Jesuit mission at Council Bluffs. Although they had been assured that there were several hundred Catholic families at the agency that were anxious for their services, they found the majority of the Potawatomi to be indifferent to their presence while the nominally Catholic mixed blood families seemed almost totally ignorant of the Catholic religion. Billy Caldwell, however, was well disposed toward the missionaries and willing to assist them (Chittenden and Richardson 1905:157). Billy Caldwell had been a Catholic at least since 1833 in which year his name appeared on a petition from the "Catholics of Chicago" asking the Bishop of St. Louis to send a Catholic priest to the Chicago area (Garraghan 1938:40-41, 45-47). A further indication that Billy Caldwell was a Catholic was that he served as godfather for his wife when she was baptized by Father de Smet shortly after his arrival at Council Bluffs (BRCBM 1838-1841:34). By December 1839, however, after a year and a half residence Father de Smet and the other Jesuits had succeeded in baptizing only 242 individuals or less than 10% of the estimated population of the reservation.

The majority of those baptized were mixed bloods, included among whom were the Laughton family. On July 6, 1838, Joseph Laughton was baptized by Father de Smet. Six months later on December 30, 1838, Wais-ke-shaw also was baptized, taking "Marie" as her Christian name. Interestingly, Wais-ke-shaw's baptism followed that of Billy Caldwell's wife Naakere (Christian name: Susanna) by one day. Wais-ke-shaw's name also is the next entry in the baptismal register after Naakere Caldwell. The proximity of the baptism of Naakere Caldwell and Wais-ke-shaw suggests that Wais-ke-shaw, an old acquaintance of the Caldwells, probably was influenced in her decision to be baptized by the baptism of Naakere Caldwell. Father de Smet, in an apparent reference to the baptism of Naakere Caldwell, had hoped that her baptism would have just this sort of influence on the Potawatomi:

One of our first conquests for Jesus was the spouse of the head chief of the Potawatomi nation. She enjoys the greatest consideration among the Indians, and I venture to hope that her example will have a great influence upon the rest of her compatriots (Chittenden and Richardson 1905:168-169).

Susanna (Sally) Laughton was baptized two days after her mother on January 1, 1839, by Father de Smet (BRCBM 1838-1841). Her Christian name was the same as that of Susanna (Naakere) Caldwell, again suggesting a possible closeness between the two families. Although Wais-ke-Shaw was listed in the baptismal register as the mother of both Joseph and Susanna (Sally) Laughton, David Lorton (Laughton) was listed as the father of Joseph while the name of Susanna's father was given as "Wm. Lhorton" (Laughton). This is the only reference to William Laughton that has been found; the nature of his relationship to David and Bernardus Laughton is unknown.

As noted in Chapter III, the Potawatomi expelled the great majority of the French Metis from the Council Bluffs reservation in 1838. Those French Metis who remained at the Council Bluffs Agency were excluded from leadership positions among the Potawatomi, generally occupying positions as laborers in the small community that developed around the subagency (Clifton 1977:324). Influenced by Billy Caldwell, however, the okamek or traditional leaders of the Potawatomi continued to favor Metis of Scots-Irish or Anglo-Saxon descent. Given the decade's long relationship between the Laughtons and Billy Caldwell, the Laughton family was probably allowed to remain at Council Bluffs. By 1843, however, seventeen year old Joseph Laughton was present at the Jesuit Mission on Sugar Creek in the Osage Reserve where he served as a witness at two marriages involving French Metis families. In 1844 he again served as a witness at a marriage at the "Ottawa Village" (Liber Matrimonium 1836-1847).

Although these marriage records indicate that Joseph Laughton was present among the missionized Potawatomi and French Metis of the Osage Reserve in the early 1840s, he apparently did not sever his connections to the more traditional Potawatomi at Council Bluffs where he became an influential man. Evidence for this is his signature on the 1846 Council Bluffs treaty in which the Potawatomi ceded their lands in Missouri, Illinois, and Iowa in return for \$850,000 and a 576,000 acre tract in Kansas. This treaty was signed, either with marks or in signatures, by 59 "Chiefs and Principal Men of Pottowatomie [sic], Ottawa, and Chippewas tribes of Indians," one of whom was Joseph Laughton (Fay 1971:135-139). Joseph Laughton signed the treaty in writing rather than using a mark, indicating that he was at least literate enough to write his name.

Joseph Laughton appears, however, by the late 1840s to have settled with the missionized Potawatomi and Metis located south of the Kansas River along Cross Creek near present day Rossville rather than with the more traditional Potawatomi located north of the river. He is the only Laughton mentioned in any of the treaties between the United States and the Potawatomi from 1831 to 1846. This suggests that he is the Lawton (first name unknown) referred to in various accounts of the early history of Rossville, Kansas, which is contained within the former

location of the Potawatomi Reserve. Andreas (1883:589) notes that:

The beauty and fertility of the Pottawatomie reserve, and the fact that it was traversed by the California and Oregon Road...made it an especially desirable location, but while an Indian reservation, of course, no title to any land could be obtained except through marriage relations with the tribe. Those who settled in the vicinity of Cross Creek in 1847-1848, were nearly all connected with the Pottawtomies in this way. Among these early settlers were John Bassho, Stephen McPherson, William Martel, Alexander Rodd, Francis Bergnon, Anthony Tacier, LAWTON, and William Nasseau.

Soon after their settlement, Bergeron, Tacier, and LAWTON built a bridge across the creek, at a point a little above the present site of the village of Rossville, on what is now Harrison Street....[This and other bridges on the reservation] were built for the Indians at the Government expense, toll being collected only from whites.

The 1971 centennial history of Rossville provides a small amount of additional information regarding Laughton. This history notes that several families, including the Laughtons, settled on the west side of Cross Creek near a ford where the Fort Leavenworth-Fort Riley military road and the Oregon and California roads crossed the creek (Figure 7). The bridge built by Laughton, Bergeron, and Tacier was for "Military and Indian use" and was located near the ford. Tolls were charged of immigrants using the bridge (Rossville Centennial Committee 1971:3).

During 1848 and 1849 Fathers Christian Hoecken and Maurice Gailland ministered to the Catholic Metis and Potawatomi at the Cross Creek settlement. Entries in the personal diaries of these two Jesuit priests as well as ecclesiastical records from St. Mary's Mission indicate that the Laughton family was present within the Potawatomi Reserve along the Kansas River during this time. On April 24, 1848, Father Hoecken recorded in his diary that "Jos. Longthon" had come to visit him and that they had "talked together about the purpose and plotting of the Methodists" (Hoecken 1848-1849:35).

On October 22, 1848, Father Felix Verreydt baptized Marie, the infant daughter of Joseph "Longthon" and Kitchi-kumi-kwi. Although Father Verreydt served as Marie's godfather, her godmother was listed as "Sara Longthon" (Liber Baptismorum 1836-1850:209). This is the only reference to Sara Laughton

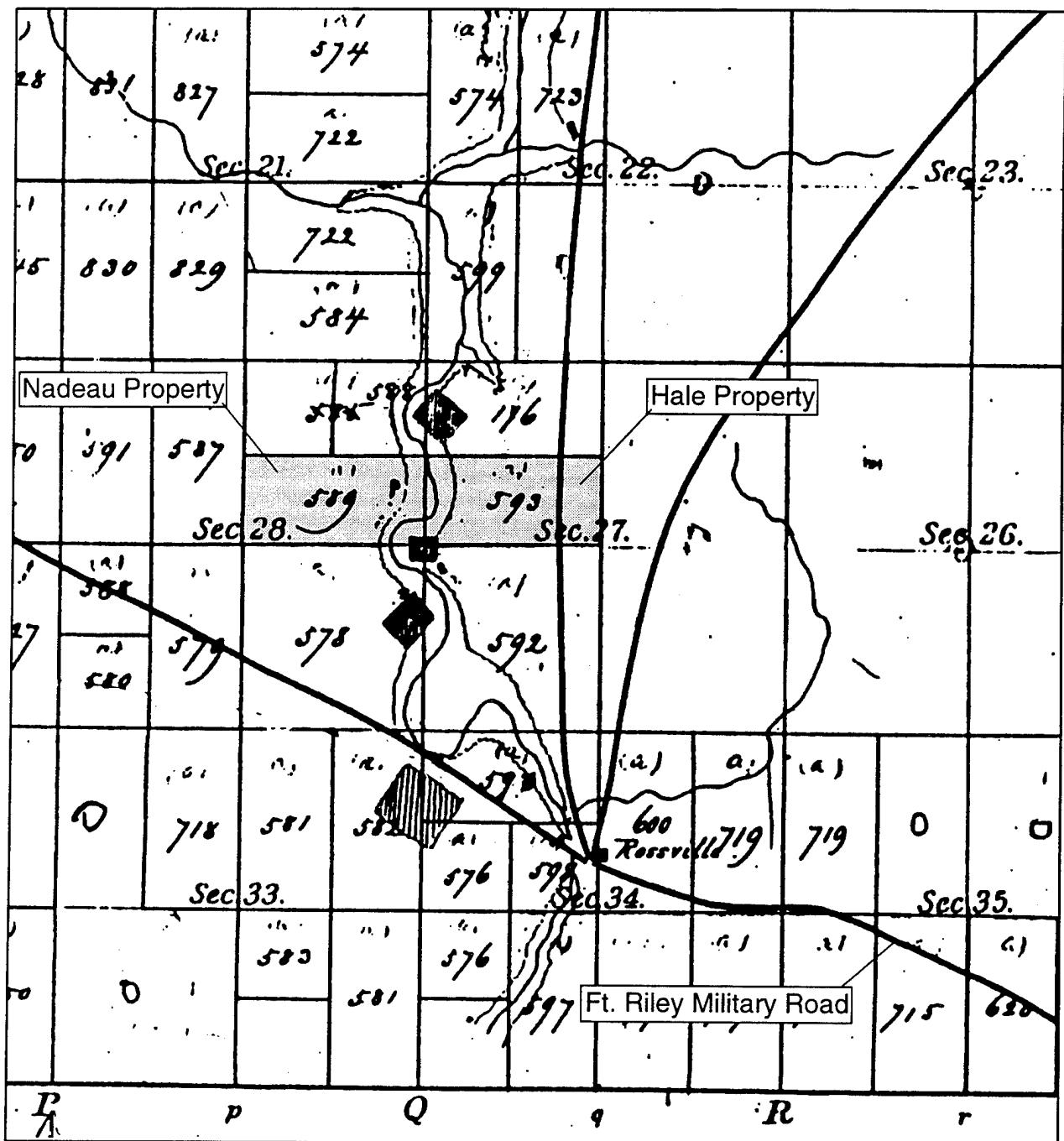


Figure 7. Project area in relation to the 1863 GLO map.

that has been found and her relationship to Joseph Laughton is unknown. One possibility is that Sara Laughton and Susanna (Sally) Laughton, Joseph Laughton's sister, are the same person.

Joseph Laughton and Kitchi-kumi-kwi were married by Father Hoecken on April 15, 1849, six months after the baptism of their daughter. The marriage took place at "la riviere du Kansas," a reference to the Potawatomi Reserve which was located to either side of that river (Liber Matrimonium 1836-1847).

During the summer of 1849 the families at the Cross Creek settlement suffered from sickness. On August 1, 1849, Father Hoecken noted in Father Gailland's diary that he had been "called to Cross Creek to visit the sick." Among the sick was "Jos. Lorgthon," to whom Father Hoecken paid a visit on August 20, 1849 (Hoecken 1848-1849:15).

A son, named David after his grandfather, was born to the Laughton family in 1852 (Allotment Report 1863). By the early 1850s the Laughton family consisted of at least four persons: Joseph Laughton, Kitchi-kumi-kwi, Marie Laughton, and David Laughton (Figure 7). It also is possible that his mother Wais-ke-shaw may have been present. Born in 1800, she would have been in her early 50s in the early 1850s. A review of cemetery records for St. Mary's Mission (1840-1863) failed to locate an entry for Wais-ke-shaw, suggesting she still could have been alive during this time. Wais-ke-shaw's Christian name (Marie), however, was the most popular baptismal name chosen by Potawatomi and Metis women. Numerous entries exist for women named Marie in the cemetery records, one of which may have been Wais-ke-shaw.

It also is possible that Susanna (Sally) Laughton was living with her brother's family in the early 1850s. Susanna (Sally) Laughton was definitely present in the Cross Creek (Rosserville) area by the mid 1850s, probably having arrived at the same time as Joseph Laughton in the late 1840s. On June 23, 1856, "Sally Lorton" was married to Jeannem G. Dehoney at the Cross Creek (i.e., Rosserville) settlement (Liber Matrimonium 1836-1847). "Jeannem" is Latin for "James" while the middle initial "G" is believed to stand for "Guillielmus," the Latin equivalent for "William." Susanna Laughton Dehoney apparently died between 1856 and 1863. Evidence for this is that although James W. Dehoney (age 32) appears in the 1863 allotment census, his wife's name is given as Loa Dehoney (age 20) (1863 Allotment Census: Family 173). There were two children in the household: Elizabeth (age 5) and John W. (age 1). Given the relatively young age of Loa Dehoney, it is possible that the older of these two children, Elizabeth, may have been a daughter of Susanna Laughton Dehoney.

Joseph Laughton died in 1859. Burial records associated with St. Mary's Mission state that:

Die 8 Maii 1855 sepultus est Josephus Lorton atate 29 ann.
[On May 8 Joseph Lorton was buried aged 29 years] (SCMSMPSC
1840-1872:171).

Following Joseph Laughton's death, his widow Kitchi-Kumi-Kwi appears to have married a Metis named Eli Nadeau (Figure 6). Eli Nadeau was a Metis of mixed Potawatomi-French descent (Clifton 1977:354). Evidence for this is an 1863 census of the Potawatomi that listed Mary and David Laughton as members of Eli Nadeau's household (Figure 8). Only the English name, Julia A., of Eli Nadeau's wife was recorded by the census taker. Marriage records indicate Hilarium (Eli) Nadeau and Juliannum (Julia Anne) Okes-hemi-hwe were married on July 16, 1860. Although Julia Anne's Potawatomi name is spelled different from that of Joseph Laughton's widow in this particular record, an 1863 baptismal record for Hilarii (Eli) and Julia Anne Nadeau's son William gives her Potawatomi name as Kitchi-kumi-kwe (Baptismal Records Immaculate Conception Church 1851-1871:216). The variations in spelling among the three names probably reflect the different way in which the sounds of the Potawatomi language were heard by the various Jesuit missionaries who made the entries in the church records.

The Potawatomi Reserve along the Kansas River was divided into individual allotments in 1863 as required by the Treaty of 1861. The 80 acre tract (N1/2 NW1/4 of Section 34) containing Site 14SH359 was allotted to Mary Laughton as allotment 590 in 1863. She was issued a patent deed on the property on October 6, 1868. A property deed for the land containing Site 14SH359 revealed that Mary Laughton married Louis Vieux, Jr., son of the important Metis leader Louis Vieux, at some point between 1861 and 1869 (Figure 6). This deed, which is contained in the Shawnee County Courthouse, Topeka, Kansas, stated that on March 16, 1869, Mary Vieux (formerly Laughton) and Louis Vieux, Jr., sold a 40 acre section of the N1/2 NW1/4 of Section 34 containing Site 14SH359 to Ellen Frazer. Mary Laughton's husband, Louis Vieux, Jr., was a son of Louis Vieux, an important Metis leader who later accompanied Potawatomi delegations to Washington. The Potawatomi and Metis occupation of Site 14SH359 appears to have ended with this sale.

As an aside, there is one other Laughton family member living among the Potawatomi in 1863. A Cecile Laughton (age 7) was living with a Potawatomi family headed by Nahk-qdo-nuck (age 30) and his wife Psih-Aah (age 32) in 1863. The only other family member was a son named Mah-bies (age 2) (Allotment Report 1863: Family 260). The relationship of Cecile Laughton to Joseph and Susanna Laughton is unclear. Given her age and the death dates of the Laughton siblings, Cecile Laughton could have been a daughter of either one. It also is possible that she was the child of yet another Laughton family member who had died by 1863.

Nadeau Family. Limited information has been found on the genealogy or early history of the Eli Nadeau family. The Nadeau family is descended on the French side from Joseph Ossany Nadeau (1637-1677). Numerous members of the Nadeau family were living in the Detroit, Michigan area by the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. The earliest reference to the Nadeau family that has been found to date is in the Tippecanoe Treaty of 1832. A number of tracts of land were reserved for specific individuals in that treaty including:

"To Mary Nadeau, one quarter section" (Fay 1971:92).

Family Person	Name of Allottee	M	W	R.	B.	Age	Indemnity	S.	R.	Days	
173. 578	Alexander Nadeau.	1				32.	87/4	28	10	13	160
579	Madeline Nadeau.	1				23	67/4 S. & 28	10	13	80	
580.	David Nadeau.	1				31	20. 1. 28	10	13	40	38. 40
174. 581	Daniel Baldwin.	1				16	58	33	10	13	80
582.	Mary Ann Baldwin.	1				32.	17/4. 68	33	10	13	80
583.	James M. Baldwin.	1				28	67/4. 48	33	10	13	80
						(Am. 66	33	10	13	40	
						3. 1. 20. 1. 7	11	13	37. 97.	"	
175. 584	Eli G. Nadeau.	R	1			14	57. 47.	34	10	13	80
585	Julia A. Nadeau.	R	1			31.	17/4. 86	21	10	13	80
586.	Mary Nadeau.	R	1			33	Am. 68.	38	10	13	80
						(Am. 68	3	11	13	40	
						5. 1. 18. 67/4.	3	11	13	40	
587	John A. Nadeau.	R	1			2.	67. Am. 28	10	13	80	
						(Am. 66	28	10	13	40	
						1. 1. Am. 57.	36	10	12	40	
588	William J. Nadeau.		1			1.	Am. 57.	34	10	13	80
589	Daniel Laughton.		1			11.	57. 46	28	10	13	80
590	Mary J. Laughton.		1			15.	Am. 47.	34	10	13	80
591.	Baptiste Bourbonne.		1			4.	77. Am. 28	10	13	80.	
176.	592 John Hale.		1			23.	87/4	27	10	13	160
593.	Julia Ann Hale.		1			18.	57. Am. 27	10	13	80	
177.	594 Samuel C. McFarland.	1				17/4.	46	19	10	13	80
	595. Katherine M. McFarland	1				23.	57. Am.	19	10	12	80
						(Am. 86	19	10	13	40	
						24. 18. 87.	19	10	13	40	
178.	596 Baptiste Lafronbois.		1.			3.	77/4. 58.	22	11	14.	80.
179	597 Anthony Favre.		1			67.	57.	34	10	13	80
	598. Louisa ne qua.		1			36. 17/4.	58	34	10	13	80
						(Am. 2.	8	11	13	41. 33	
						10. 18.	32.	34	10	13	40.

Figure 8. 1863 allotment information for Laughton/Nadeau and Hale families, families 175 and 176 respectively.

The location of this reservation, whether in Illinois, Indiana, or Michigan, was not specified in the treaty. The relationship of Mary Nadeau to Eli Nadeau is also unknown, although it is slightly possible that she could have been his mother. Mary Nadeau was 53 years old in 1842 (Murphy 1988:111). Eli Nadeau was 31 in 1863 indicating that he was born in either 1831 or 1832, depending on the month of his birth. As Mary Nadeau was born in, either 1788 or 1789, she would have been in her early 40s at the time of Eli Nadeau's birth.

The Treaty of 1837 required the Potawatomi groups in Indiana, the Kankakee, Wabash, and St. Joseph bands, to give up their lands in exchange for a reservation in Kansas. Starting in 1837 and 1838, the Potawatomi of Indiana and Michigan were forcibly removed to the West. Potawatomi from Indiana moved to the Osage River or, "Mission Band" Reserve from 1837 to the early 1840s. Mary Nadeau's name and age appear on a muster roll for the Osage River Sub-Agency dated October 14, 1842 (Garraghan 1938:698; Murphy 1988).

The Treaty of 1847 required the Potawatomi to move from the Osage River Reserve to a new reserve located north and east of the Kansas River. Members of the Nadeau family were present in this new reserve by March and June of 1848 when Michael Nadeau (relationship to Eli unknown) accompanied Father Verreydt, superior of the Catholic Potawatomi Mission, on trips north of the Kansas River to look for a suitable site for the establishment of a mission (Garraghan 1938:601). In October 1848, the "never-failing" Michael Nadeau helped Father Hoecken transport his household possessions across the Kansas River to the newly established St. Mary's Mission (Garraghan 1938:611-612).

The first specific mention of Eli Nadeau that has been found occurs in the diary of Father Maurice Gailland of St. Mary's Mission in 1849. On February 18, 1849, in what may be a reference to Eli Nadeau, Father Gailland noted that "Nadeau's son applies to be a boarder" at the school associated with the mission (Gailland 1848-1850:10). The first specific reference to Eli Nadeau in Father Gailland's diary occurred on March 14, 1849, when the Jesuit recorded that "Hilary Nadeau and an Alcot boy come to school and join the boarders" at the school at St. Mary's Mission (Gailland 1848-1850:11). "Hilary" (also spelled "Hilarium" or "Hilarii" in various records) was Eli Nadeau's Latin baptismal name.

The Catholic boarding school at St. Mary's Mission was established in September 1848, under a contract between the Jesuits and the United States Indian Office. Five thousand dollars were provided by the government for the construction of two boarding houses, one for girls and one for boys. The Jesuits were allowed fifty dollars, later raised to seventy-five dollars, for each student enrolled (Garraghan 1938, volume II: 619, 621). The intent of the school (officially known as the Pottowatomie Manual Labor School) was to "civilize" the Potawatomi through a combination of education and manual labor in the farm fields associated with the mission. Both Metis and Potawatomi children attended the school. The first students, all of whom were Metis boys, were enrolled in November 1848.

Eli Nadeau and the other students left the boarding school periodically, apparently returning to visit their families. This "going and coming, leaving and returning" of the students was a source of irritation to the Jesuits (Duernick 1856 in Garraghan 1938, volume II: 663) who preferred that the students remain at the school. One such reference to this activity occurred on August 30, 1849, when Father Gailland simply noted that "Hil. Nadeau goes home" (Gailland 1848-1849:15). Eli Nadeau was gone from the mission a little over a week this time. He returned on September 9, 1849, accompanied by three other students named Francois La Framboise, Wabansi, and Osskum (Burke 1953:523). He left again at some point between September and Christmas, returning to the school on Christmas Day (Burke 1953:529).

Eli Nadeau's rise to prominence among the Potawatomi apparently began when he was in his 20s. Clifton (1977:365) notes that by the early 1850s a small elite group of Metis including Joseph La Framboise, Joseph Napoleon Bourassa, and Eli Nadeau had come to occupy the profitable middle ground between the American government and the Potawatomi. One such business activity that Eli Nadeau was engaged in during this time in combination with several other men was the operation of the Potawatomi Agency ferry across the Kansas River (Root 1936:20).

On July 4, 1856, Hilarium (Eli) Nadeau married Magdalena Bourbonnais (Figure 15) (*Liber Matrimonium*). Two daughters, Rosalia Archangela and Mary (Maria), were born to Hilarii (Eli) Nadeau and Magdalena in 1857 and 1858, respectively (BRICC 1851-1871). Magdalena apparently died at some point between December 1858, when Maria was born, and early 1860. On July 16, 1860, Eli Nadeau married Julia Anne Okes-hemi-hwe (LM). As stated previously, however, a baptismal record for Eli and Julia Anne's son William Francis gives Julia Anne's Potawatomi name as Kitchi-kumi-kwe rather than Okes-hemi-hwe (BRICC 1851-1871). This is phonetically identical to the Potawatomi name (Kitchi-kumi-kwi) of Joseph Laughton's wife, suggesting that Eli Nadeau married Joseph Laughton's widow.

By the time of his second marriage in 1860 Eli Nadeau, along with another Metis named Anthony Navarre, had become one of the most powerful Metis among the Prairie Band of the Potawatomi (Clifton 1977:366). By the early 1860s Nadeau and Navarre were using Potawatomi funds to construct toll bridges across tributaries of the Kansas River. In September 1860, in a probable reference to one of these bridges, a group of buffalo hunters from Wyandotte, Kansas, noted that they had "paid [an] outrageous toll over the Cross Creek bridge" (Anonymous 1937:203). During the Civil War Navarre and Nadeau collected substantial tolls from the supply wagons of the Union Army that crossed over the government financed bridges. Nadeau also used Prairie Band education funds to pay the tuition of his children at St. Mary's Academy (Clifton 1977:369).

Eli Nadeau may have moved to Site 14SH359 in the summer of 1860 following his marriage to the widow of Joseph Laughton. He was definitely living at this location on September 24, 1862. On that day a Government Land Office (GLO) surveyor was establishing the section line between Sections 33 and 34, Township 10 South, Range 13 East (Appendix B).

After establishing the quarter section corner the surveyor noted that he was entering:

"Eli Neddow's [Nadeau's] cornfield, bears N.E. & S.W."

This corn field also is shown on the GLO plat map within Township 10 South Range 13 East in allotments 576, 582, and 590. After leaving the corn field the surveyor encountered the Fort Riley Military Road. At this point, standing on the line between Sections 33 and 34 and on the south edge of the Fort Riley Road, the surveyor looked to his right toward the present-day location of Site 14SH359 and noted that:

"Eli Neddow's [Nadeau's] house is about 4 chains [264 ft] East."

The purpose of the 1862 government survey was to establish townships, ranges, and sections for the allotment of the Potawatomi Reserve to individual Potawatomi as required by the Treaty of 1861. A census also was conducted to determine the number of Potawatomi eligible to receive tracts of land as part of the allotment. This census revealed that in addition to Eli (age 31) and Julia Anne (age 33) the Nadeau household included Mary Laughton (age 15) and David Laughton (age 11); Eli Nadeau's daughter Mary (age 5) by his first marriage; two of Eli and Julia Anne's own children, John (age 2) and William Francis (age 1); and a four year old boy named Baptiste Bourbonie (Bourbonnais) (Figure 6). Baptiste Bourbonnais may have been an orphan related to Magdalena Bourbonnais, Eli Nadeau's first wife. Rosalia Archangela Nadeau, one of Eli Nadeau's daughters by his first marriage, was not recorded in the census and apparently had died by 1863. William Francis Nadeau, although present in 1863, was to die at the age of two and a half in August, 1864 (SCMSMPSC 1840-1872:236).

Eli Nadeau signed the Treaty of 1861 as a member of the Citizen Band (Fay 1971:144), entitling him to a 160 acre tract as head of household when the reservation was divided into individual allotments. As noted earlier the 80 acre tract containing Site 14SH359 was allotted to Mary Laughton in 1863. Excluding the Laughton children and Baptiste Bourbonnais, Eli and Julia Anne Nadeau and their children received eight tracts totaling 480 acres (Figure 6). Eli Nadeau and his family may have moved to one of these tracts following the allotment of the tract containing Site 14SH359 to Mary Laughton. They also may have remained together as a family at Site 14SH359 until Mary Laughton became an adult.

Within a few years the great majority of the Citizen Band had sold or lost their allotments and become destitute. Eli Nadeau, a supporter of the 1861 Treaty, was taken to court after he became a citizen for failing to obtain a license to operate a hotel. Shortly after this, he and his family reportedly gave up their Citizen Band status and allotments to join the Prairie Band (Murphy 1988:262). An 1873 plat of the Rossville area (Figure 9), however, shows that Eli Nadeau held the title to three of the allotments, 587, 589, and 591, given to members of his family. This suggests that although Nadeau may have given back some of his allotments, he retained titles to others that he wished to keep.

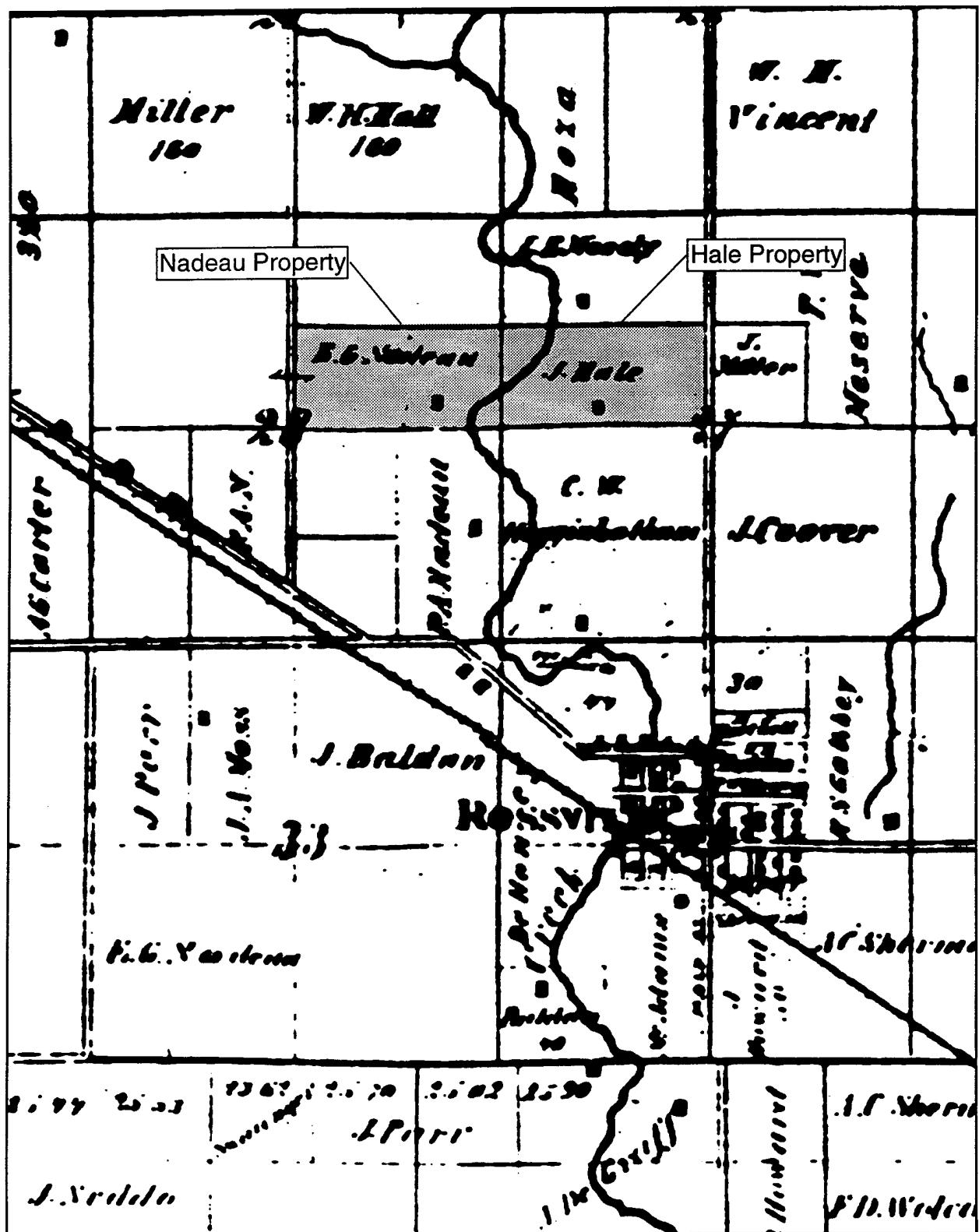


Figure 9. 1873 plat of Rossville area showing the Nadeau and Hale properties.

Eli Nadeau's wealth and political importance among the Prairie Band increased throughout the late 1860s and 1870s to the detriment of the more traditional Potawatomi. In 1869 Eli Nadeau, George Young, Joseph Bourassa, and Anthony Navarre were elected by a "general tribal council" to a Potawatomi business committee (Miner and Unrau 1978:89). Business committees comprised of Metis headed by Navarre had interposed themselves between the Potawatomi and their Indian agents since the early 1860s, enriching themselves in the process. Nadeau and Navarre as business committee members accompanied Prairie Band delegations to Washington, D.C., in the early 1870s (Murphy 1988:246). On February 10, 1871, the business committee submitted to the Kansas courts a list of 38 "deceased" Citizen Band Potawatomi whose heirs were entitled to receive the deeds to their allotments. Rather than being dead, the 38 were part of a group of Potawatomi Indians living in Mexico. The business committee, however, persuaded the courts to appoint them executors of the "deceased" Indians estates, collecting over \$30,000 when the lands were sold at auction (Herring 1990:130-131). Nadeau eventually was forced to repay \$6,340 to the superintendent of Indian Affairs in Lawrence, Kansas, to escape prosecution (Clifton 1977:368-39).

An 1879 inventory of cattle and agricultural production on the Prairie band reservation revealed that Eli Nadeau was the wealthiest man on the reservation (Clifton 1977:369). He personally owned 81 horses, 7 mules, 53 sheep, 260 cattle, and 160 hogs. Crews farming Prairie Band lands for his benefit also raised 4,970 bushels of corn and 380 tons of hay. Clifton (1977:369) notes that the above statistics probably represent only a fraction of his actual wealth. He also was the largest trader on the reservation as well as owning land allotments south of the Kansas River and in Oklahoma as well.

Eli Nadeau's political and economic influence continued into the mid 1880s, despite the fact that the members of the Prairie Band disliked him. In 1886 the traditional leaders of the Potawatomi petitioned the Commissioner of Indian Affairs for a new trader to replace Nadeau, "one who will keep a good stock of goods, attend strictly to business, and not interfere in ...tribal matters" (Clifton 1977:293). Nadeau and George W. James, de facto agent for the Potawatomi, continued to control most of the daily operations of the reservation throughout the 1880s while the actual agents seldom visited the reservation (Clifton 1977:369, 370-375).

The date of Eli Nadeau's death is not yet known. The Dawes Allotment Act of 1887 required that the land on the Prairie Band's reservation be divided into individual allotments. Although the Potawatomi resisted this Act for many years, it was gradually implemented throughout the late nineteenth and early twentieth century. A total of 588 allotments had been made by 1895 (Clifton 1977:403). An additional 224 allotments were made between 1895 and 1905. Eli Nadeau received allotment 61, suggesting that his allotment was one of the 588 made before 1895. Next to his name is the notation "dead; land sold", suggesting that he died prior to 1895. His son John A., who received allotment 61, also was listed as dead. His daughter, Mary T. Nadeau, received one of the later allotments (#658), suggesting that she was still alive by 1905 (Connelly 1918:562).

Other As noted earlier, Mary Laughton sold the 40 acre tract containing the site to Ellen Frazer in 1868. At this point the property passed through several short transactions: Ellen Frazer to John Heard, March 19, 1869; John Heard to Alvira Bazliz, March 31, 1869; and Bazliz to John and Mary Heard, December 28, 1869. The Heards maintained ownership of the property for ten years before selling it to C.W. James on August 26, 1879. James sold the property the same day to B.W. Higginbotham. B.W. Higginbotham and his wife maintained ownership for 14 years. By March 20, 1903, the property containing the site had passed into the hands of C.W. Higginbotham who also owned the land on which Sites 14SH348 and 14SH351 are located.

A conveyance of the property from C.W. Higginbotham to another land owner could not be found. Keith Navarre, however, reported that his great-grandfather James Baldan once owned the property (Appendix F). The 1873 plat of Rossville Township, however, shows that James Baldan owned the NE 1/4 of Section 33 rather than the NW 1/4 of Section 34 that contains the site (Figure 9). Tenant farmer Duane Parr stated that the property was owned and occupied by Peter Navarre, an uncle of Keith Navarre, in the late 1930s (Appendix C). Peter Navarre also may have constructed the buildings located in the woods north of the site. These included a house, barn, granary, chicken house, and hay barn. The property is currently owned by Peggy Navarre Plantamura, a descendant of Peter Navarre.

In sum, the archival research indicates that the following individuals represent the nineteenth century occupants/owners of Site 14SH359: (1) Joseph Laughton and family (1848-1855); (2) Laughton/Nadeau family (1855-1869); (3) possibly John Heard and wife (1869-1879) although they could be land speculators. The remainder of the nineteenth century owners of the property are interpreted as speculators whose primary residence was located elsewhere.

Aerial Photographs

Aerial photographs of the site area taken in 1937 and sometime in the 1940s were examined for structures or soil staining present at the site during the early to mid twentieth century (Figures 10 and 11). In both photographs a farm road extends west from Rossville to the site. Two cleared areas, one located to the northeast of where the road intersects the tree line bordering Cross Creek and one to the southwest, also appear in both photographs. Standing structures, apparently representing the Peter Navarre farmstead located north of Site 14SH359, are located in the northeastern cleared area. These minimally include a large barn and a house.

No structures are present in the southeastern cleared area where Site 14SH359 is located (Figure 9). This indicates that all structures at the site had been destroyed or removed by 1937. The cleared area containing the site, however, was not being farmed in either 1937 or 1940s. One possibility is that it was being used as an animal lot by Peter Navarre, but this cannot be determined from the photographs.

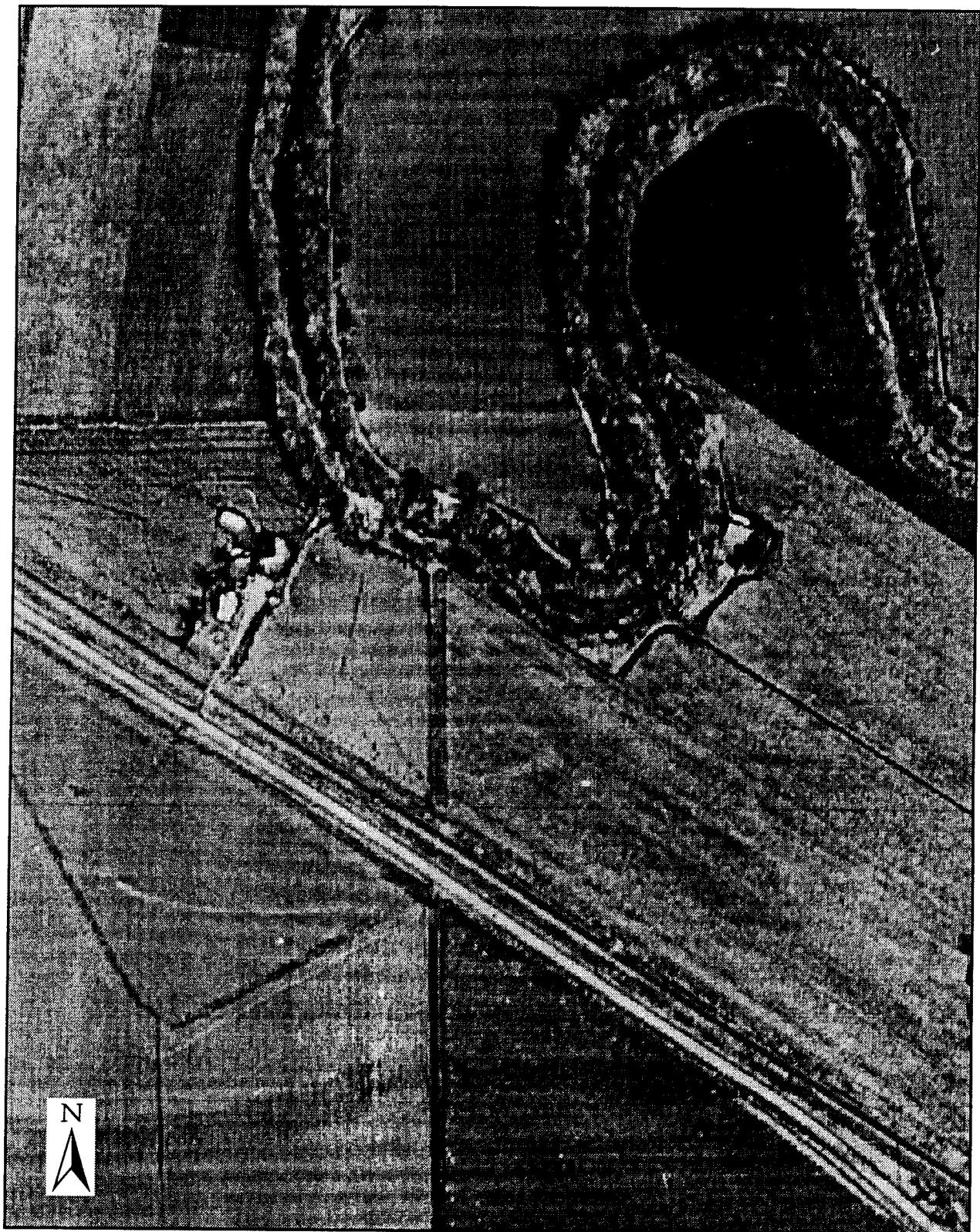


Figure 10. Portion of 1937 aerial photograph showing general location of Site 14SH359.



Figure 11. Portion of 1940s aerial photograph showing general location of Site 14SH359.

That the site area was not farmed during the 1930s and 1940s, as was the remainder of the Cross Creek floodplain, may indicate that standing structures were still present at the site during the early twentieth century. The farmer during this time may have avoided the area containing the structures while putting the rest of the floodplain under cultivation. These structures may have been dismantled by either Peter Navarre or the previous land owner shortly before the 1937 photograph was taken.

Four dark linear stains that appear to represent former road beds of the Fort Riley Military Road also are present on the 1940s aerial photograph (Figure 12). These stains originate at the west bank of Cross Creek approximately 350 m west of Site 14SH359. Their location agrees with that recorded for the Fort Riley Military Road in 1862. In addition, all four are oriented in a northwest direction identical to that of the Fort Riley Military Road (Figure 7). That there are four stains rather than one suggests simply that they represent alternate paths followed by travelers heading west along the Fort Riley Road.

A very faint linear stain that may represent the route of the Fort Riley Road from present-day Rossville to Site 14SH459 also is present on the complete 1937 photograph. This stain is much fainter than those located west of Cross Creek but again is located in the same position and oriented in the same direction as that of the Fort Riley Military Road in 1862.

Field Investigations

Field investigations were conducted at Site 14SH359 for eight consecutive days during December 2-9, 1993. These investigations included documentation of the artifacts collected from the site by Mr. Dwight Streeter since 1990, mapping of the site including a twentieth century farmstead located immediately east of Site 14SH359, collection of artifacts on the site surface, the systematic excavation of a series of 50 cm x 50 cm test units across the site area, and the excavation of a series of larger test units (Figure 12).

The Kansas State Historical Society (KSHS) form for Site 14SH359 indicated that the site was located in an agricultural field adjacent to Cross Creek. This field had been recently plowed prior to the start of the field investigations (Figure 13). Surface visibility was low to medium (50-75%) due to a lack of a heavy rain to wash the the surface. Pedestrian survey revealed that Site 14SH359 consisted of a light scatter of rock, historic ceramics, glass, and metal located south of a fringe of woods that bordered the margins of Cross Creek. A broad level area measuring approximately 45 m east-west by 20 m north-south was located in the woods adjacent to the site. North of this the ground gradually sloped for approximately 10 m before reaching the banks of Cross Creek. The ground dropped away abruptly from the bank with the creek bed located approximately 3 m below the top of the bank. Cross Creek itself consisted of a wide, shallow stream flowing through a well-incised channel with steep banks. Heavy recent slumping of the creek banks was evident. A spring or seep was located at the base of the creek bank approximately 60 m northeast of Site 14SH359 (Figure 12). Water was seeping slowly out of a small hole at the base of the creek bank at a fairly steady rate in this location.

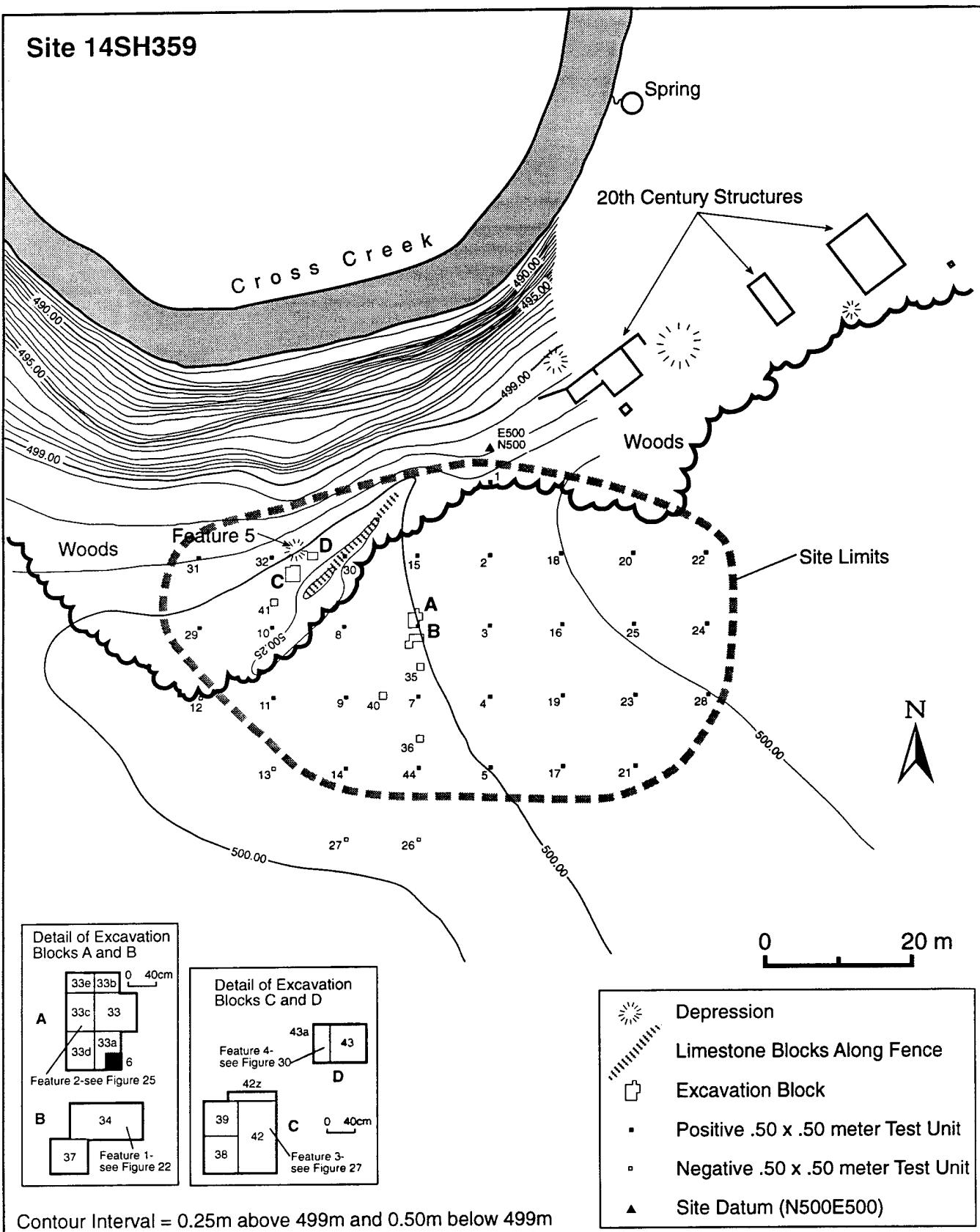


Figure 12. Topographic map of Site 14SH359.



Figure 13. View of Site 14SH359, looking northwest.



Figure 14. Stone blocks piled along tree line, Site 14SH359, looking southeast.

A line of approximately 100 limestone blocks extended for approximately 25 m along an east-west fence line located in the woods immediately north of the field (Figure 14). The proximity of the blocks to the field suggested that they represented the remains of a structure foundation that was removed by the farmer and thrown along the fence line. A shallow circular depression, Feature 5, interpreted as possibly representing an old cistern, was located approximately 5 m north of the line of stone blocks.

A datum (N500E500) was established in the woods. A north-south baseline was extended into the field from this datum to grid point N455E500. An east-west baseline extending from N455E460 to N455E550 was also established. All surface collection and excavation units at the site were then established by measuring off the two baselines using 50 m fiberglass tapes.

Twentieth Century Farm Complex

A group of four structures, two cisterns, and a surface scatter of mid-twentieth century artifacts was located in the woods 20 m northeast of Site 14SH359 (Figure 12). These appear to represent the remains of the late-1930s farmstead constructed by Peter Navarre. Information or instructions regarding these structures was not provided in the project scope of work. As the primary focus of the investigations at Site 14SH359 was delineation of the location and extent of the Potawatomi occupation, investigation of the standing structures was confined to: (1) pedestrian survey of the cultivated field adjacent to the farm complex to determine if mid-nineteenth century materials were present; (2) assessment of the structures to determine if any could be associated with the Laughton-Nadeau occupation.

Pedestrian survey of the field immediately adjacent to the standing structures located no cultural materials. As nineteenth century artifacts were visible under similar field conditions on the surface of Site 14SH359 to the south, this indicated that the standing structures were located beyond the limits of Site 14SH359.

All of the standing structures and foundations within the structural complex clearly post-date the mid-nineteenth century Laughton-Nadeau occupation of Site 14SH359. The most western of the structures consisted of a poured concrete foundation dug into the hill side (Figure 15). Iron rebar extended out of the top of the foundation walls. Immediately south of this foundation was a concrete cistern or septic tank.

Two shovel tests (not shown) were excavated in the area between the collapsed structure with the stone and cement foundation and a limestone well (Figure 16). Both contained a homogenous dark brown silty clay to ca. 40 cm BS. Artifacts were not recovered from either test.

A two-door, two-room frame chicken shed made of milled boards was located approximately 15 m east of the concrete foundation. Although the majority of the nails were post-1884 wire nails, machine cut nails also were present. The shed had a sloping galvanized metal roof, which would date it to the twentieth century.

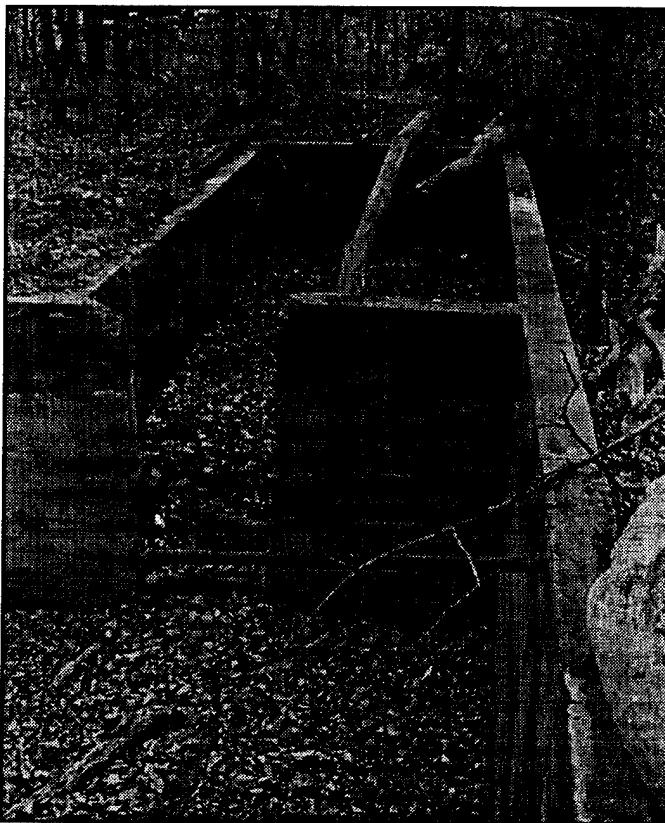


Figure 15. Site 14SH359, poured concrete foundation, looking northeast.



Figure 16. Stone well located within northeastern part of Site 14SH359, looking northeast.

A collapsed square domestic structure was located approximately 10 m east of the shed (Figure 17). This structure had a stone foundation that had been cemented in place. A poured concrete floor located above the foundation. Both wire and machine cut nails were contained in the collapsed superstructure, and a metal bed spring was present within the debris above the structure. A depression, possibly representing a filled in well or cistern, was located near the south corner of the structure. A cut limestone well was located approximately 10 m east of the structure. A large scatter of recent surface debris including car parts, a water heater, and farm equipment was located north of the structure.

A group of 25 concrete piers set into the ground was located at the east end of the group of structures (Figure 17). These most likely represent the foundation to the large barn that appears on the 1937 and 1940s aerial photographs.

In sum, archival and architectural data indicates that the structural complex dates to the early twentieth century. The presence of machine cut nails in the domestic structure and the chicken shed suggests that either Peter Navarre or a previous land owner may have razed the nineteenth century structures at the Laughton-Nadeau site (14SH359) to the west. The limestone blocks in the limestone and cement foundation of the domestic structure similarly may have originated at Site 14SH359. Artifacts indicative of a mid-nineteenth century occupation were not recovered in either the shovel tests or the cultivated field adjacent to the structures.

Dwight Streeter Collection

Dwight Streeter, a local avocational archaeologist, has collected artifacts from the site over the past several years with the permission of the tenant farmer. He allowed us to analyze and photograph all artifacts in his collection from Site 14SH359. Items associated with the Laughton-Nadeau occupation in his collection include mid-nineteenth century military buttons, Catholic medals given to the Potawatomi by Jesuit missionaries associated with St. Mary's Mission, buckles, a shell bead, and other items. These artifacts are described and illustrated in the analysis section of this report within Chapter VI.

Surface Collection

The purpose of the surface collection was to define the site limits and obtain a sample of materials from the site surface. Surface visibility in the freshly plowed field was poor with relatively few artifacts exposed on the site surface. Because of the low surface visibility, a controlled surface collection was not conducted. Instead, crew members systematically walked the site area, marking the location of each artifact with a pin flag. These artifacts were then collected by the 5 m x 5 m grid square in which they were located. A total of 76 squares was collected (Figure 18).

The surface collection revealed that Site 14SH359 covered an 80 m east-west x 40 m north-south area. The southern, eastern, and western site borders were delimited by a very low

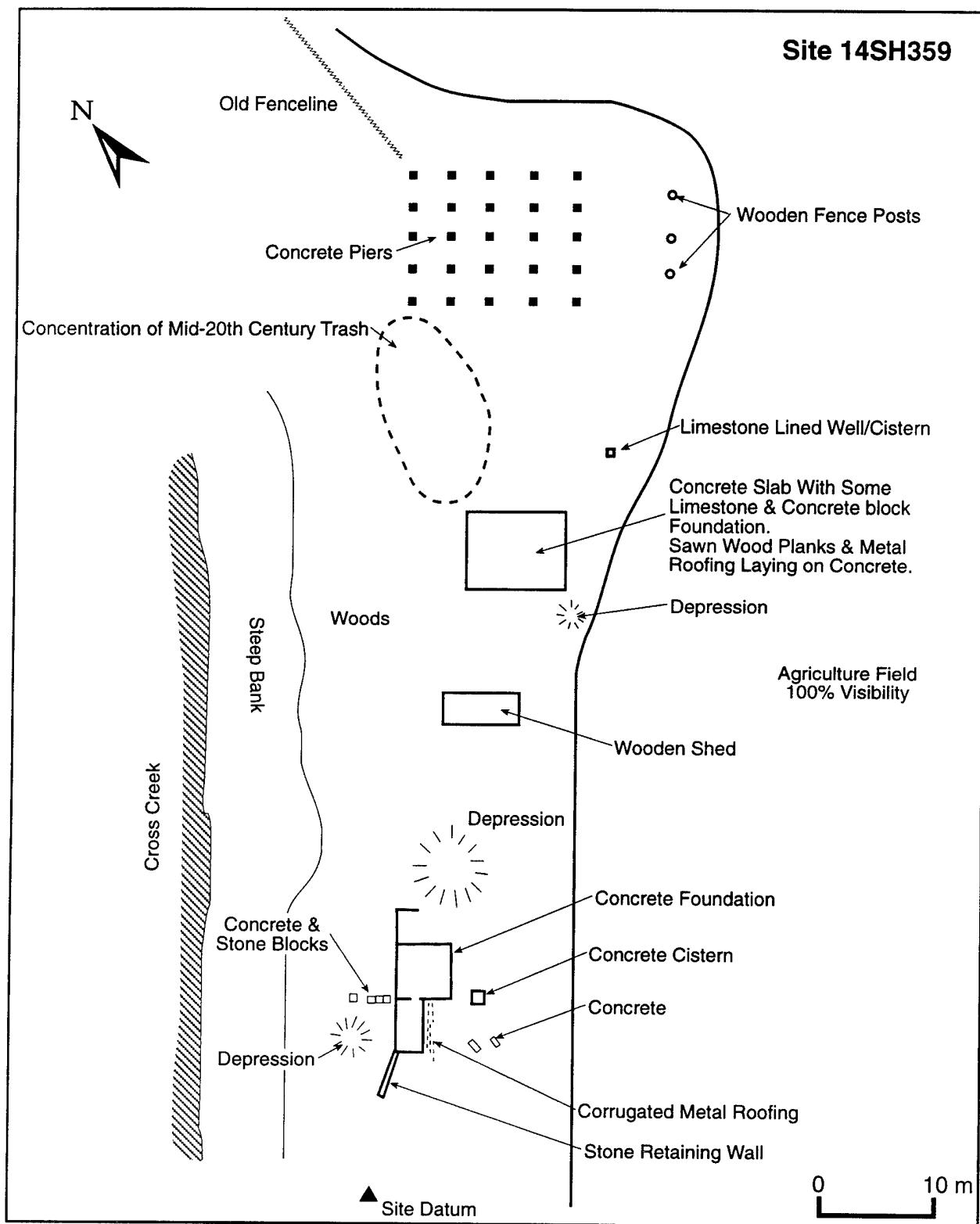
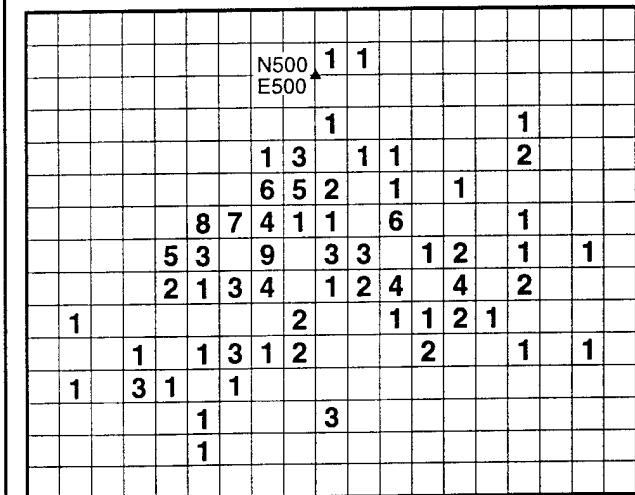


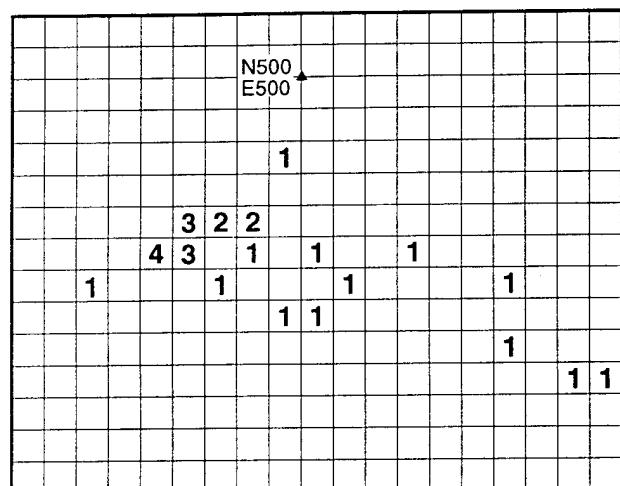
Figure 17. Planview of 20th century features and structures near Site 14SH359.



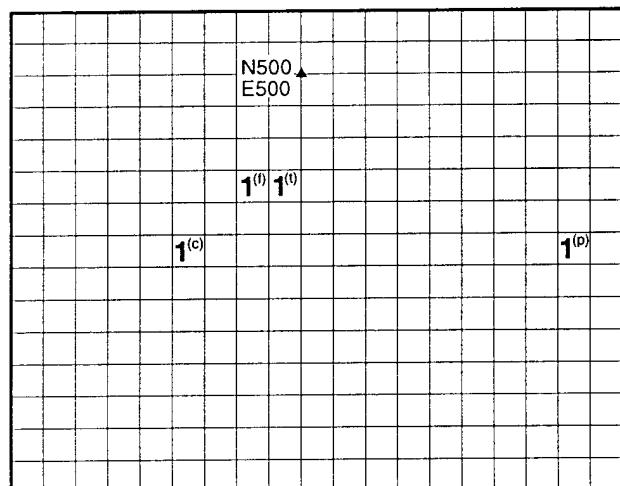
Site 14SH359

Surface Collection Artifacts

Kitchen



Architectural



(c) Clothing

(p) Personal

(f) Furnishings

(t) Transportation

Figure 18. Controlled surface collection artifact frequency distribution, Site 14SH359.

frequency or absence of cultural materials. To the north the artifact scatter extended into the tree line, indicating that a portion of the site was contained in the wooded area bordering Cross Creek.

Mid-nineteenth through early-twentieth century materials were recovered from the site surface (Appendix D). Artifact frequency per collection square varied from 1 to 9 items. Artifacts recovered from the surface that are possibly associated with the mid-nineteenth century Laughton-Nadeau occupation included two glass beads, the handle to a redware jug, a fragment of a redware smoking pipe, two fragments of black transfer print ceramics (ca. 1830-1850), a fragment of ground hematite, bitters bottle fragments, a scraper fashioned on a fragment of amethyst bottle glass, a fragment of annular ware (ca. 1830-1860), blue transfer print (ca. 1830-1860) ceramics, and two metal alloy rosette harness ornaments. Other materials on the site surface, some of which may be associated with the Potawatomi occupation, included whiteware, ironstone, machine cut nails, window glass, bottle glass, and other items (See Chapter VI).

50 cm x 50 cm Test Units

A series of 32 50 cm x 50 cm test units totaling 8 square meters was excavated across the site (Figure 12). The purpose of these units was to recover a systematic sample of materials from the site, provide information regarding artifact frequency across the site, and to search for subsurface features. Six of the test units were placed within the woods to determine the extent of the site in this area.

Subsurface features were not encountered in any of the units. Two similar soil horizons were encountered in the plowed field: (1) a dark grayish brown plow zone, 0-30 cm below surface (BS); (2) the culturally sterile subsoil also a dark grayish brown, which originated at ca. 30+ cm in all units.

Excavation of Units 1, 10, and 29-32 revealed that an unplowed midden extending to ca. 40 to 50 cm BS was present in the woods. Soil horizons in these units generally consisted of (1) a humus zone, 0 to 4-6 cm BS, (2) a dark grayish brown silty clay loam, 4-6 cm BS to ca. 40-50 cm BS. Artifacts from these units consisted of a combination of nineteenth and twentieth century items. Twentieth century materials primarily consisted of wire nails and fence staples probably associated with the modern fence line that runs along the border of the woods. Artifacts dating to the same time as the Potawatomi occupation at Site 14SH359, Rockingham ceramics and blue transfer print white earthenware, also were recovered. Other materials recovered from the units included window glass, machine cut nails, a clothing button, whiteware, brick, metal, and other items.

Large Units

Eighteen various sized test units and extensions totalling 16.15 square meters were excavated following the excavation of the 50 cm x 50 cm test units (Figure 12). These units were placed both within the field (9.75 square meters) and the woods (6.4 square meters) (Figures 19



Figure 19. Excavation of Block A in field, Site 14SH359, looking north.



Figure 20. Excavation of Unit 39, in woods, Site 14SH359, looking north.

and 20). A block of five contiguous units (Excavation Block A; Units 33, 33a-e) was excavated in the cultivated field adjacent to Test Unit 6 (N475E490) which had produced a large amount of limestone and nails (Figure 12). Excavation Block B (Units 34 and 37), which totaled three square meters, was located 1 to 1.5 m south of Excavation Block A. Two features were identified in the two excavation blocks. Feature 1, a structure foundation wall, was defined within Block B. Feature 2, a limestone well, was defined within Block A. Excavation areas within the woods totalled 6.4 square meters (Figure 12). These included Excavation Block C (Units 38, 39, 42, and 42z); a 1 m x 1 m unit (41); and Excavation Block D (Units 43 and 43a). Excavation of these units revealed that an unplowed midden extending from the existing ground surface to approximately 50 cm BS existed in the woods. In addition, Features 3, 4, 5, and one post mold were defined within the woods. Feature 3, an earthen cellar, was defined within Block C. Feature 4, a concentration of limestone slabs, was defined in Units 43 and 43a within Excavation Block D. Feature 5, a large depression, was defined on the existing ground surface within the woods. Post Mold 1 was defined within Unit 43 of Excavation Block D.

Field Units

Feature 1 was an 80 cm wide structure foundation wall defined in Unit 34, of Excavation Block B, at the base of the plow zone (Figure 12) and was oriented northeast-southwest (Figures 21 and 22). It extended into the north, west, and south walls of the unit. Mortar, limestone, and brick fragments were present on top of the foundation. The limits of Feature 1 were defined by probing with an Oakfield soil probe along the path of the foundation wall. This revealed that Feature 1 was a rectangular building measuring approximately 9.8 m (30.5 feet) long x 4.30 m (14.1 feet) wide. These figures are probably slightly in error, with the actual size of Feature 1 being 30 feet x 15 feet. The long axis of the structure was oriented northwest-southeast, suggesting that the structure faced the Fort Riley military road which ran in the same direction past the site.

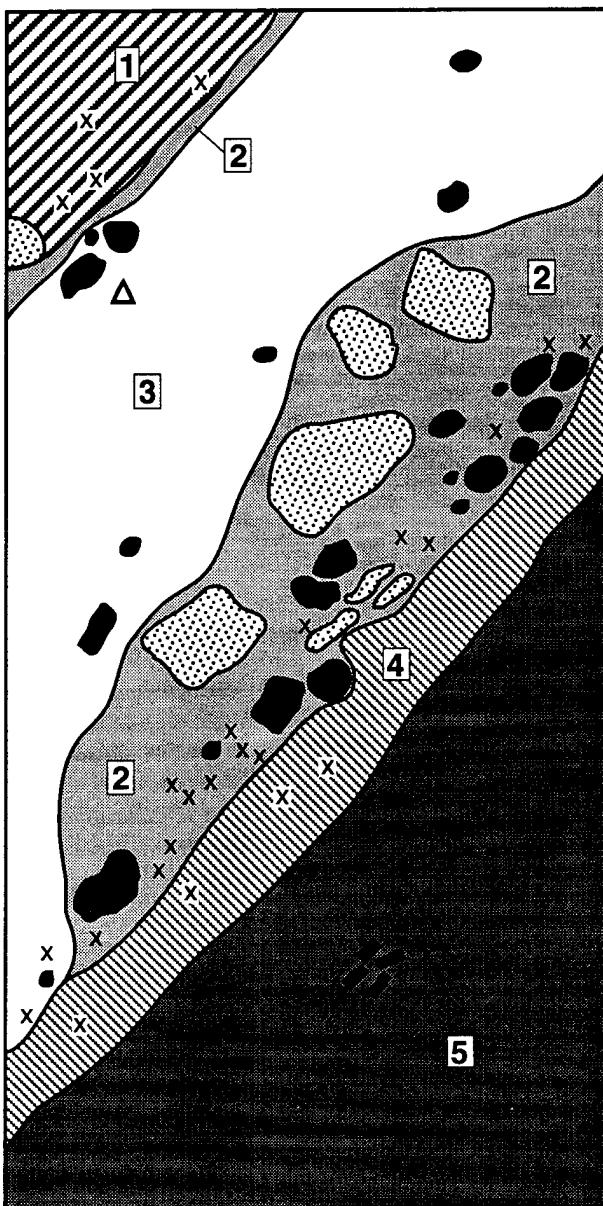
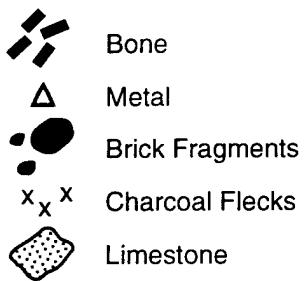
A section of the fill within the structure contained in Unit 37 was excavated. Artifacts within the fill consisted entirely of late-nineteenth century/early-twentieth century materials, including wire nails (post 1884) and decalcomania (post 1890) ceramics. Because these materials post-dated the Potawatomi occupation of the site, excavation of the feature fill was discontinued at 20 cm beneath the base of the plow zone. Consequently, the depth of the fill within the foundation is unknown and could not be determined by probing. It also is possible, however, that abandoned mid-nineteenth century structures at the site were intentionally filled with trash during the late nineteenth and early twentieth century by the occupants of the farm complex located immediately east of the site.

Feature 2 was a limestone well foundation defined at the base of the plow zone in Excavation Block A (Figure 12). This square foundation varied in width from 1.60 to 1.75 m (Figures 23 and 24). Mortar was located on top of some of the limestone slabs, indicating that part

Site 14SH359
Excavation Block B
Unit 34
Feature 1

N

0 20 cm



	Very dark gray 10YR 3/1 clayey silt house fill.
	Very dark gray 10YR 3/1 clayey silt.
	Very dark gray 10YR 3/1 clayey silt with much mortar.
	Very dark gray 10YR 3/1 clayey silt, possible builders trench.
	Very dark grayish brown 10YR 3/2 clayey silt.

Figure 21. Planview of Feature 1 in Unit 34, Site 14SH359.

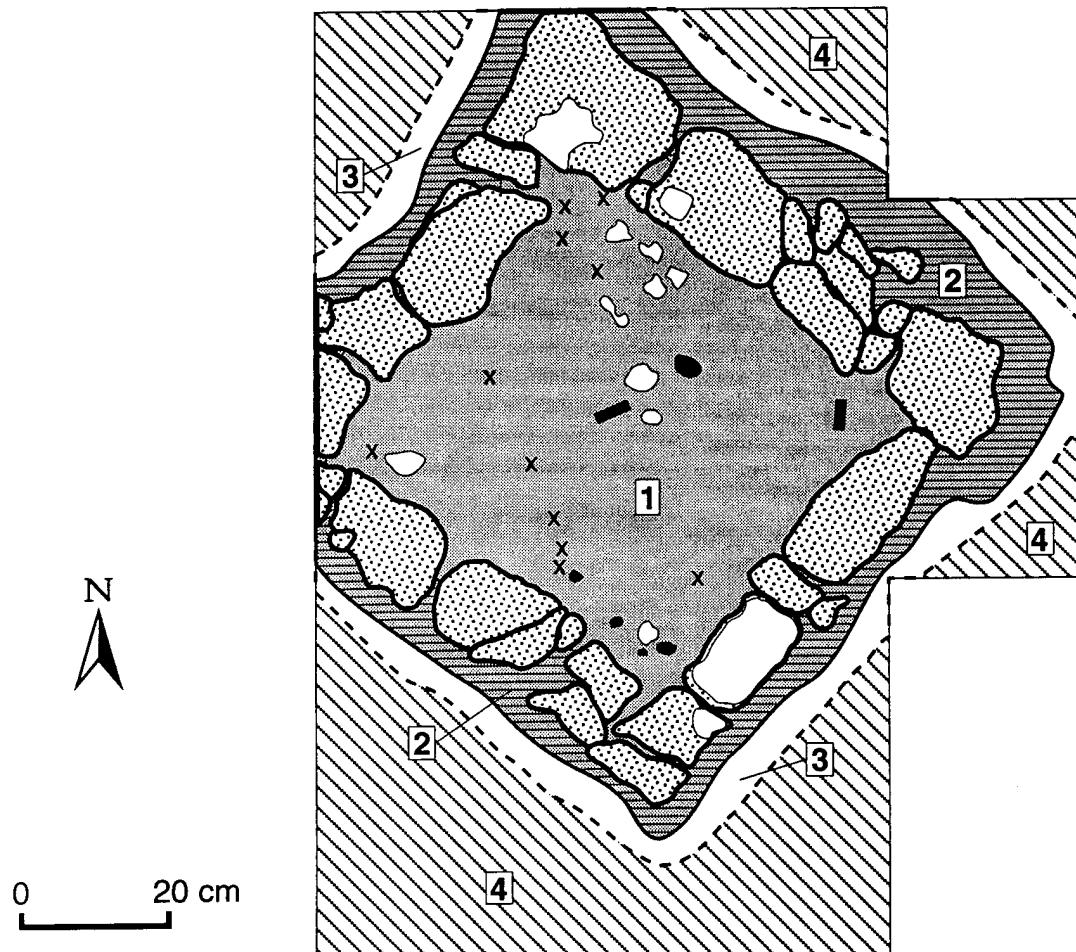


Figure 22. Feature 1, Unit 34, Excavation Block B, Site 14SH359, looking north.



Figure 23. Feature 2, Excavation Block A, Site 14SH359, looking northwest.

Site 14SH359
Excavation Block A
Units 6 and 33a-e
Feature 2



- [1]** Black 10YR 2/1 clayey loam feature fill with mortar, charcoal flecks, brick fragments, and iron stains from nails.
- [2]** Black 10YR 2/1 clayey loam builders trench line.
- [3]** Very dark gray 10YR 3/2 clayey loam mottled with black 10YR 2/1 clayey loam.
- [4]** Very dark gray 10YR 3/2 sterile clayey loam.

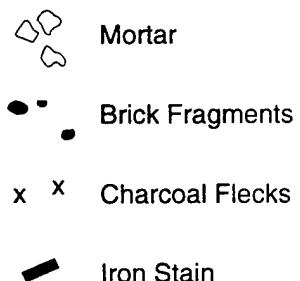


Figure 24. Planview, Feature 2, Excavation Block A, Site 14SH359.

of the foundation had been removed. An upright small diameter metal water pipe was located inside the northeast corner of the foundation. Pebbles dropped down this pipe were heard to splash, indicating the pipe extended to the water table. The interior of the well foundation was filled with a black clay loam that extended 25-35 cm BS beneath the top of the foundation. Artifacts within this fill included a large amount of wire nails (post 1884), suggesting that the well housing was filled subsequent to the Laughton-Nadeau occupation of the site. Similar to Feature 1, it is possible that Feature 2 represents a mid-nineteenth feature that was filled in by the occupants of the late-nineteenth/early-twentieth century farm complex east of the site.

Three additional units (35, 36, and 40) were excavated on a very slight linear rise south of Excavation Blocks A and B (Figure 12). All contained only plow zone and subsoil horizons. The plow zone consisted of a compacted dark grayish brown loam extending to approximately 30 cm BS. The subsoil was similar in color but had a higher clay content. Cultural features were not identified in any of these units. A total of 98 artifacts was recovered from Unit 35 (Figure 12). Seventy-five percent ($n=73$) of the artifacts were architectural related materials. The remaining material consisted of container glass, ceramics, bone, metal, and a porcelain marble. Unit 36 produced a total of 30 artifacts. Again more than half ($n=19$) were architecturally related items. Also present were ceramic fragments, container glass fragments, metal fragments, a glass bead button, and a porcelain 4-hole button. A total of 29 artifacts was recovered from Unit 40. Sixty-five percent ($n=19$) of these artifacts were architecturally related. The remaining items consisted of ceramic and container glass fragments.

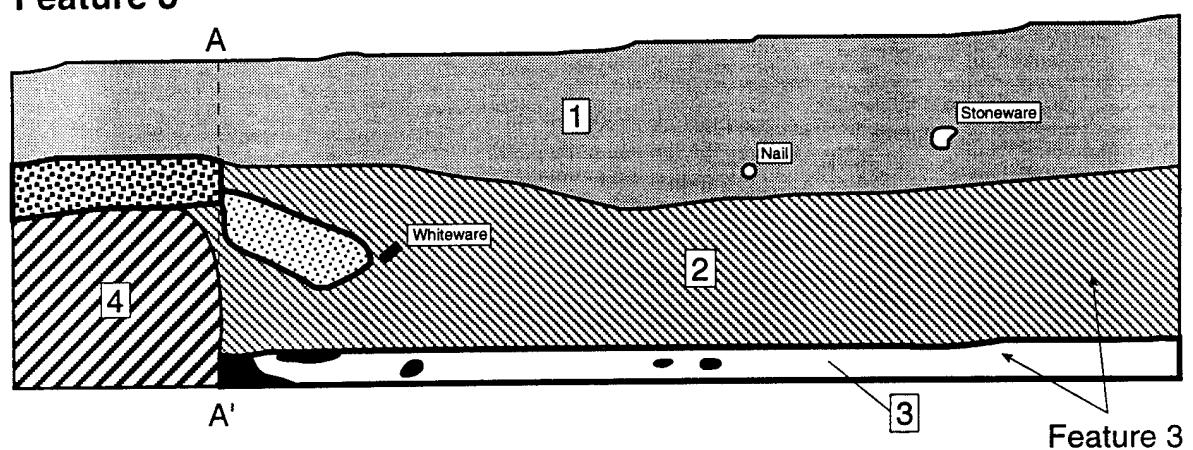
Excavation Units in Woods

Excavation of these units revealed that an unplowed midden extending from the existing ground surface to approximately 50 cm BS existed in the woods (Figure 25). The upper levels (0-20 cm) contained a combination of nineteenth and twentieth century materials. The lower levels (20-50 cm), primarily contained mid-nineteenth century artifacts associated with the Potawatomi occupation of the site. These included bone and shell clothing buttons, bottle fragments, ceramics, and other items. The most intact bottle consisted of the upper portion of an "1860 Plantation Bitters" bottle.

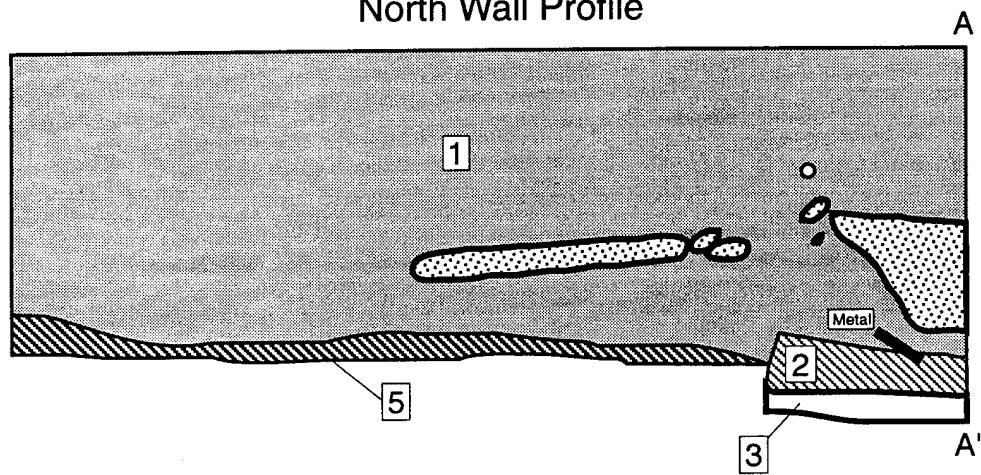
Three features (3-5) and one postmold were defined in the woods. Feature 3 is a rectangular earthen pit cellar contained in Excavation Block C. Approximately one-half of Feature 3 was contained in the excavation block (Figure 26). The remainder of the feature extended into the south and east walls of the unit. The feature fill was virtually identical in color and texture to the surrounding midden matrix (Figure 25). Consequently, the feature outline was not discernible until culturally sterile subsoil was reached at ca. 50 cm BS (Figures 27 and 28). Subtle color differences defined during the profiling of the east wall of Excavation Block C, however, revealed that the cellar (Feature 3) actually originated at ca. 20 cm BS. As such, most of the artifacts recovered from ca. 20-50 cm BS in Unit 42 actually were contained within the cellar. Very few artifacts were recovered from the cellar following definition of the feature at ca. 50 cm BS. These included structural debris (machine cut nails and window glass) as well as bottle glass. Wire nails

14SH359
Excavation Block C
Feature 3

East Wall Profile



North Wall Profile

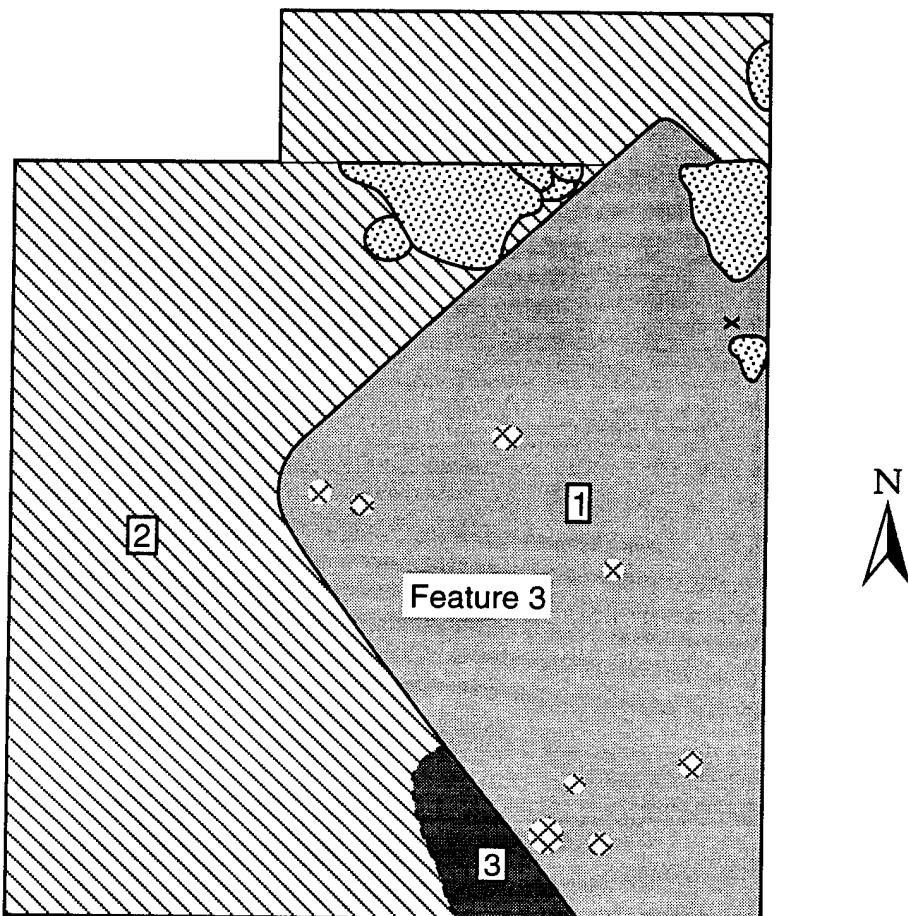


- [1] Black 10YR 2/1 clay loam, midden.
- [2] Black 10YR 2/1 clay loam mottled with dark brown 10YR 3/3 clay loam, feature fill.
- [3] Grayish brown 10YR 5/2 sand with pockets of mortar, feature fill.
- [4] Dark brown 10YR 3/3 clay loam mottled with black 10YR 2/1 clay loam.
- [5] Dark brown 10YR 3/3 sterile clay loam.
- Rock concentration
- Limestone
- Mortar

0 50 cm

Figure 25. Wall profiles, Excavation Block C, Site 14SH359.

14SH359
Excavation Block C
Feature 3 – 50 cm bs



- [1] Very dark 10YR 3/1 slightly clayey loam mottled with dark grayish brown 10YR 4/2 clay loam.
- [2] Dark grayish brown 10YR 4/2 sterile clay loam.
- [3] Very dark gray 10YR 3/1 clayey loam disturbance.
- [●] Limestone
- [×] Mortar
- [x] Charcoal

0 40 cm

Figure 26. Planview, Feature 3, Excavation Block C, Site 14SH359.

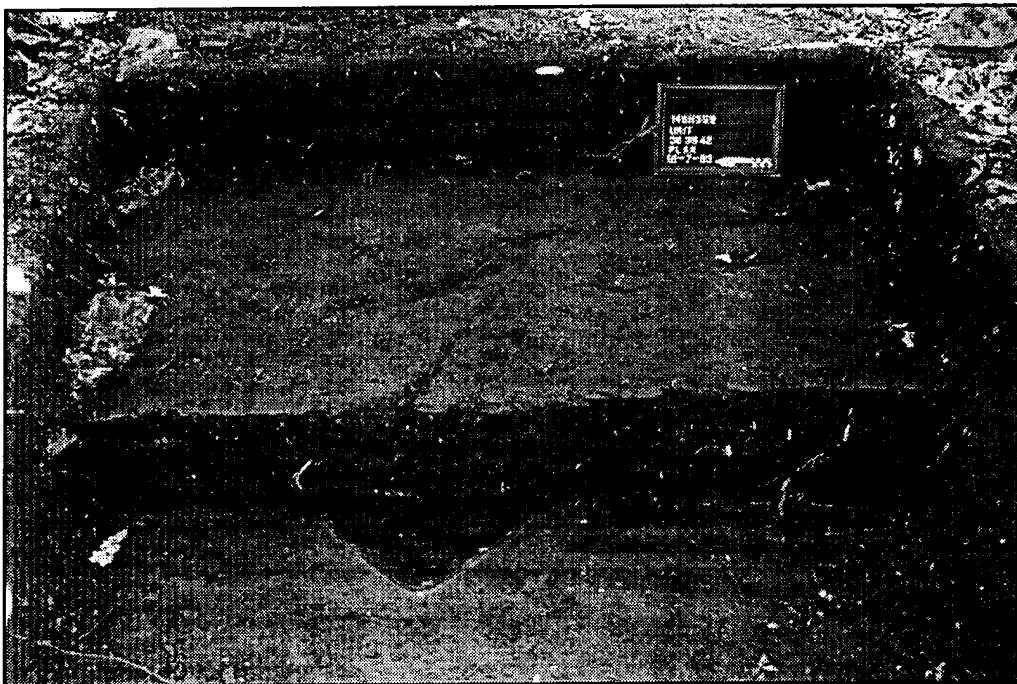


Figure 27. Feature 3, Excavation Block C, site 14SH359. Note that the edge of the feature is only visible in the west (bottom) half of unit at 50 cm bs.

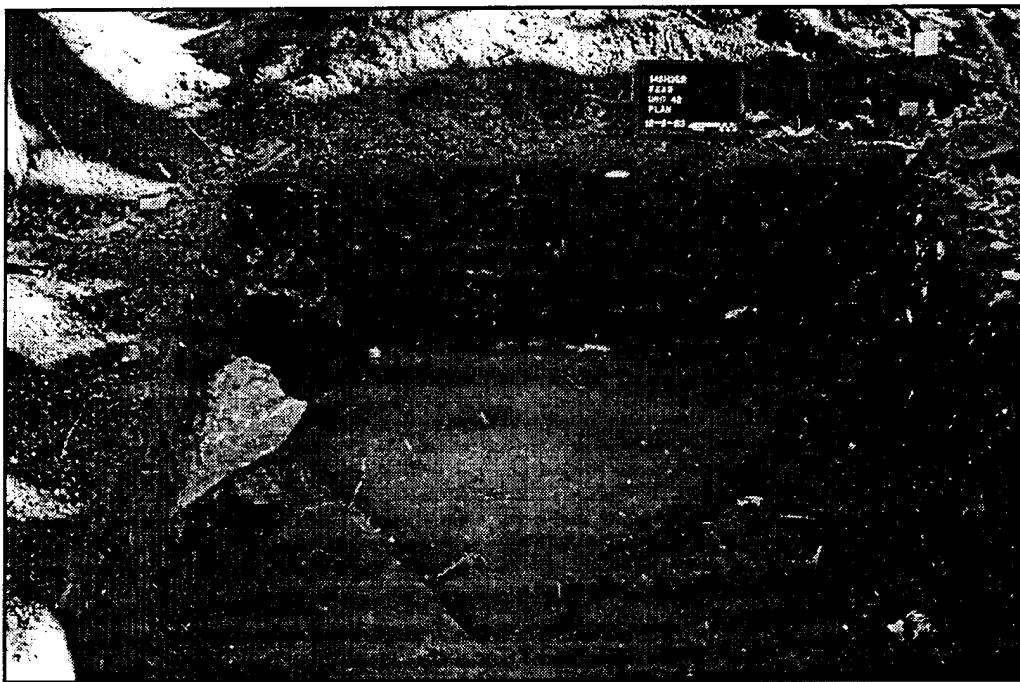


Figure 28. Feature 3, Excavation Block C, Site 14SH359, at 50 cm bs.

were not recovered, suggesting the cellar pre-dates 1884.

Feature 4 was contained in Units 43 and 43a. The feature consisted of a concentration of limestone slabs contained within the midden at 30-40 cm BS (Figure 29). These initially were believed to represent the remains of a collapsed wall belonging to Feature 5, a probable cistern located northwest of the unit. Artifacts recovered from the area of the rock concentration included machine cut nails, window glass, and whiteware.

Feature 5 was a large (3 m in diameter) shallow depression that originated at the existing ground surface 1.3 m north of Unit 42z (Figure 12). A screened single shovel test was excavated in the center of the depression. This revealed that the depression extended to at least 50 cm BS. Sterile soil was not reached and the actual depth of the feature is unknown. The depression was filled with numerous limestone slabs that were large enough to have been part of a foundation or a collapsed cistern wall. The soil matrix was a homogenous dark brown loam. Only two items, a pull top beverage can and a modern sardine can, were recovered from the top of the feature. Feature 5 is interpreted as representing a probable cistern that has been intentionally filled in.

Postmold 1 was located in Unit 43 of Excavation Block D (Figures 12 and 30). This round bottomed post was first noted at 40 cm BS and mapped at 50 cm BS. Highlime mortar was present in the post fill, indicating that it was associated with the historic occupation of the site.

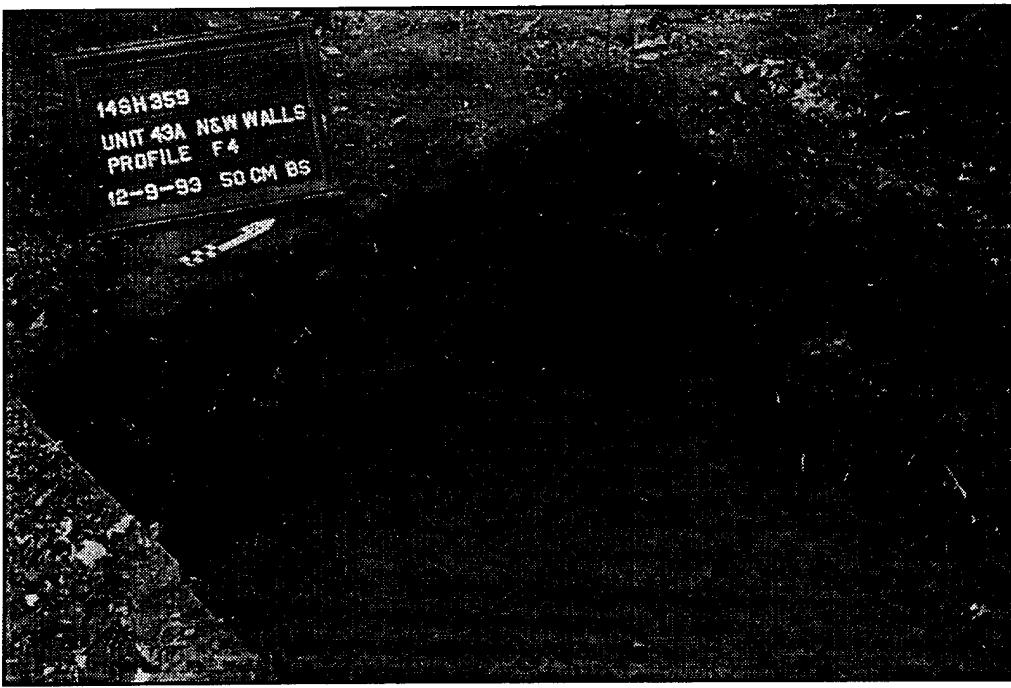


Figure 29. Feature 4, Site 14SH359.

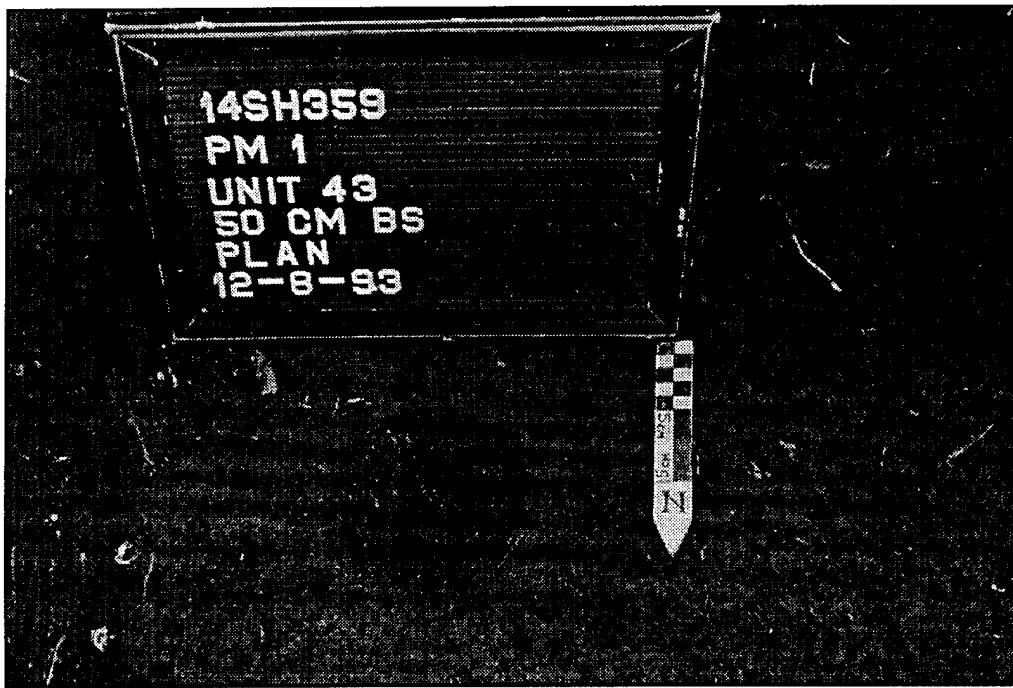


Figure 30. Post mold 1, Site 14SH359.

Chapter VI: Artifact Analysis Site 14SH359

Tracy Sandefur and Jim Snyder

Introduction

A total of 5,784 artifacts was recovered by the Phase III investigations at Site 14SH359. All artifacts, except those dealt within the field, were processed (washed, sorted, cataloged, and labeled) at the laboratory facilities of American Resources Group, Ltd., in Carbondale, Illinois. Processed artifacts were separated first into four major classes, ceramic, glass, metal, and other. Subclasses were then defined within each major class. Material that was identified, weighed, and counted in the field included sandstone ($n=10$), limestone ($n=2,290$), brick ($n=217$), gravel ($n=1$), slate ($n=8$), coal ($n=48$), cinder ($n=35$), igneous/metamorphic rock ($n=17$), and mortar ($n=700$). The first three artifact classes (ceramic, glass and metal) are self explanatory, while the fourth class of artifacts consisted of materials other than ceramic, glass, metal, or a composite of two or more primary materials.

In addition, each artifact was attributed to a particular functionally related category. The categories used in the present study have been adopted from Ball (1984) and Rogers et al. (1988) and include: (1) kitchen (tablewares, preserved food containers and associated elements, nonfood related bottles and jars, and cooking utensils); (2) furnishings (furniture and lamp parts); (3) clothing (buttons, buckles and shoe parts); (4) personal (pipes and toys); (5) arms (ammunition); (6) transportation (wagon and carriage parts, and harness and saddle parts); (7) architectural (window glass, nails and brick); (8) tools/activities (files, boring implements and hardware); (9) other (items which are potentially identifiable but cannot be identified as to function at the present time); and (10) unidentifiable (all items which are too poorly preserved or too fragmentary to be identified as to function).

Ceramics

A total of 455 ceramic artifacts, or 8.08% of the entire assemblage, was recovered from Site 14SH359. Ninety-six of these were recovered from the surface collection. Unfortunately, most of the ceramics have been seriously disturbed either by plowing or perhaps cattle grazing or a combination of the two. As a result, most of the vessels are broken into such small fragments that identification of vessel type is virtually impossible. The functionally related categories for ceramics include: kitchen ($n=442$), architecture ($n=1$), clothing ($n=4$), personal ($n=7$), and furnishings ($n=1$) (Appendix D, Table 1-4). These functional categories were then separated by

ware type, such as redware, yellowware, whiteware, ironstone, porcelain, and stoneware. Ware types are differentiated on the basis of paste color, paste texture, and glaze. Vessel forms and decoration are important as well in further separation of types.

Kitchen

Kitchen-related ceramics ($n=442$) comprise 65.77% of the ceramic assemblage and are represented by whiteware ($n=278$), ironstone ($n=46$), porcelain ($n=11$), redware ($n=7$), yellowware ($n=4$), and stoneware ($n=96$). All kitchenware recovered by this investigation can be found in Appendix D, Tables 1-4.

Whiteware Whiteware has an off-white paste and is a refined ceramic fired at a much lower temperature than ironstone and porcelain. As a result, the paste is more porous and will generally stick or adhere to one's tongue, however, ironstone and porcelain will not. Although cobalt was still added to the clear, lead free glaze, puddling was less noticeable, except along the foot of the vessel. Whiteware was first produced as early as 1820 and is still in production today.

Kitchen whitewares comprise 62.9% ($n=278$) of the ceramic assemblage. Undecorated sherds make up 88.49% ($n=246$) of these whitewares. Decorated types recovered at Site 14SH359 include plain shell edged ($n=2$); handpainted including flow blue ($n=2$), annular ($n=4$), sprig/floral ($n=3$), and polychrome decoration ($n=2$); transfer printed including blue ($n=5$), brown ($n=2$), purple ($n=1$), flow blue ($n=1$), and flow black decoration ($n=2$); decalcomania ($n=2$); gilt ($n=2$); and embossed ($n=12$).

All of the plain shell edged, handpainted and transfer printed decorated ceramics ($n=24$) have a temporal range from ca. 1830-1860 (Figure 31a-h). The later decorated sherds ($n=16$) range from ca. 1880 to the last known occupation in the mid twentieth century (Figure 31i). These include the decalcomania, gilt and embossed. Although embossing occurs as early as the mid nineteenth century its popularity did not peak until the latter part of the same century.

Decorative types cannot be determined on only one whiteware piece from an unidentifiable vessel. Flow blue was definitely used on the sherd but whether or not transfer or handpainted flow was used in the application cannot be determined due to the fragmentary nature of the sherd. Only one undecorated sherd from an unidentifiable vessel shows evidence of burning.

Identifiable vessels include cups, bowls, saucers, plates/platters, and a bowl lid. Ten of the whiteware sherds are noticeably thick in comparison to the rest of the assemblage. Thickness in these fragments varied from 5 mm to 9 mm indicating a large serving vessel. Excavation of Unit 42z within Excavation Block C recovered the majority of the sherds. Three pieces, undoubtedly from the same large ribbed bowl, were recovered from levels 2, 3 and 4. Another bowl fragment was recovered from Unit 43, level 4. Possible platter fragments were recovered from Units 20, 25, 30, and 42.

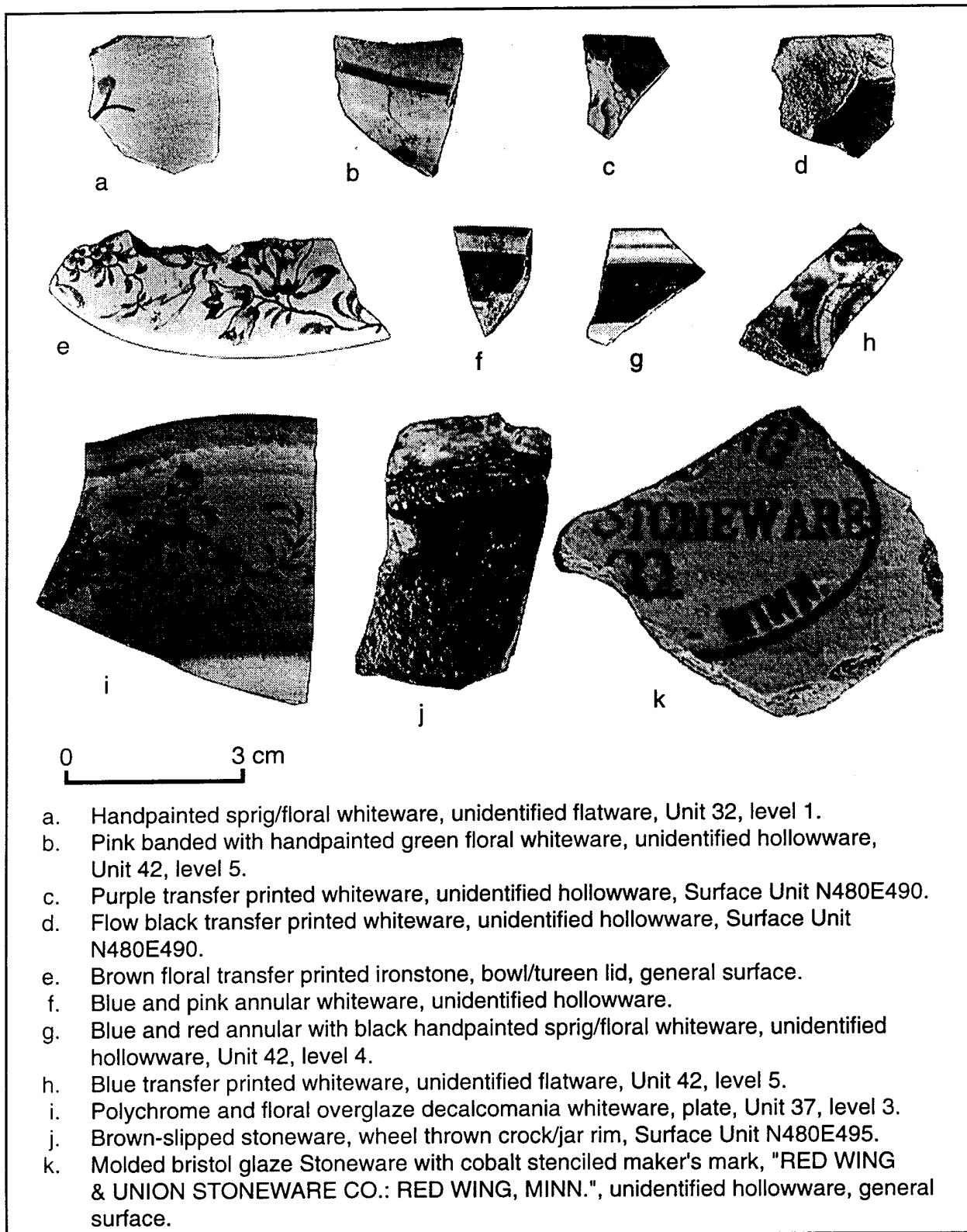


Figure 31. Kitchen related ceramics, Site 14SH359.

Only one printed maker's mark was recovered, which cannot be identified as to manufacturer due to the fragmentary size of the sherd.

Ironstone Ironstone is a white pasted and refined ceramic that is fired at a higher temperature with a petuntse (a form of feldspar) inclusion within the paste. As a result, it is a more durable and less porous ware and will generally never stick or adhere to the tongue. Ironstone has an almost grayish color, is generally thicker than whiteware, and is rarely decorated. The date range of ironstone is approximately ca. 1840-1910. However, its popularity was more prominent in the late 1800s.

Ironstone comprises 10.41% (n=46) of the kitchen related ceramic assemblage. Undecorated sherds number all but one of the total (n=45). The only decorative type recovered is embossed (n=1).

No maker's marks were recovered from the excavation. Identifiable vessels from the ironstone assemblage include bowls and cups.

Porcelain Porcelain is a durable, highly vitrified ware with a translucent, thin body. The manufacturing of true porcelain began as early as the 1700s; therefore, unless a porcelain sherd has a decoration of some sort, applying a date is next to impossible (Haskel 1981).

Porcelain is represented by 2.49% (n=11) within the kitchen-related ceramic category. Decorated sherds include gilt with raised handpainting (n=1) and a green glaze (n=2). Identifiable vessels include plates/platters.

Redware Redware has a red or reddish-brown lead glazed paste and is an unrefined ceramic. It is the earliest type of pottery made in America and is the softest of the earthenwares due to a low firing temperature; so, the paste is porous. Redware dates as late as the 1920s in rural communities where local potters still produced it for local use (Ketchum 1991b).

Redware sherds compromise 1.58% (n=7) of the kitchen related ceramics recovered from the site. Six of these have a clear glaze and are from unidentifiable hollowware. The seventh sherd has a natural brown clay slip on the exterior and appears to be a strap handle from a jug.

Yellowware Yellowware has a cream to buff colored paste and is an unrefined ceramic. In general, yellowware was produced ca. 1827-1938 (Ketchum 1987), most commonly occurring ca. 1830-1900 (Brown 1982:14).

Undecorated yellowware sherds compromise 0.9% (n=4) of the kitchen related ceramics recovered from the site. Decorated sherds include annular (n=1) and Rockingham (or Ferromangiferous) (n=1). The Rockingham glaze was produced in the United States ca. 1812-1900 (Brown 1982:14). The annular decorated sherd has three thin white bands on the exterior surface. Annular decorated yellowware was popular from ca. 1840-1940 (Ketchum 1987).

The remaining yellowware sherds ($n=2$) are clear glazed and from unidentifiable hollowwares.

Stoneware The remaining 21.72% ($n=96$) of kitchen ceramics are stoneware. These unrefined utilitarian wares were produced in the northeastern part of United States as early as 1730. By the early nineteenth century, this pottery industry had spread to the Midwest.

Stoneware surface treatments identified in the assemblage include salt glazed ($n=39$), slip glazed ($n=45$) (Figure 31j) and Bristol glazed ($n=8$). Identifiable vessel types ($n=11$) are represented by milk/mixing bowls, jars/crocks, jugs, and beverage bottles. All these vessels are responsible in some way for either the preparation or the storage of food.

Of the four beverage bottles, three have a natural brown clay slipped exterior surface while the interior surface is dry. The paste of all these sherds is a highly fired gray colored clay. The remaining sherd has a dark yellowish clay slip exterior while the interior surface is clear glazed. Stoneware beverage bottles were popular in the mid nineteenth century and contained several different kinds of beverages including beer, ginger beer, and various soft drinks (Ketchum 1991a:19).

Of the 96 sherds recovered only one was identified as jolly/jiggered molded and six wheel thrown. Wheel thrown is the older of the two forms and was common in commercial production of stoneware until the latter part of the nineteenth century. Jolly/jiggered was first introduced in the mid-nineteenth century and, except remote and isolated areas of the country, replaced the traditional wheel thrown technique by the late nineteenth century. In the process of jolly or jiggered manufacturing the exterior clay of a vessel is shaped in a turning mold while a template cuts and forms the interior (Ketchum 1991a:162).

Only one manufacturer's mark was present within the stoneware assemblage. A Bristol glazed jar/crock fragment found on the general surface had part of a cobalt stenciled makers' mark that read ". . . NG/ & / . . . STONEWARE/ CO./ . . . -MINN. (Figure 31k)." This is no doubt manufactured by the Red Wing Union Stoneware Company, Red Wing, Minnesota, 1906-1936 (Ketchum 1991a:146).

Architecture

Architectural ceramic artifacts comprise 0.22% ($n=1$) of the ceramic assemblage. The architectural ceramics consist of one door knob fragment recovered from the top of Feature 2. The door knob fragment is an "agate" type made from a mixed brown and red clay. Agate door knobs date from about 1860 to 1920 (Jurney and Moir 1987:279).

Clothing

Ceramic clothing represents 0.88% ($n=4$) of the assemblage. Buttons are the only artifacts represented in this functional category. Three ceramic buttons made from porcelain, are

undecorated, and all have four holes. Measurements in diameters varied from 11 mm to 16 mm. Porcelain buttons were recovered from Units 36, level 1 and Unit 38 Feature 2, level 2 (Figure 32a). A "seed" bead is the last clothing item and appears to be made from ceramic, although this is unclear. It was recovered from a flotation sample taken from Unit 43, level 3 and measures 2.7 mm in diameter with a small hole in the center. Seed beads were worn as part of the clothing rather than a necklace or rosary (Stone 1974:88).

Personal

Ceramic personal artifacts comprise 1.54% ($n=7$) of the ceramic total. Toys are the most represented with a total of five. Other personal artifacts represented are tobacco pipes ($n=2$).

Toys represented consist of a porcelain doll head ($n=1$) and legs ($n=2$). The head fragment (Unit 10, level 3) is very small, but evidence of black painted hair suggests that it is indeed part of the head. One of the doll legs (Unit 3, level 1) (Figure 32b) is again very small, but evidence of a pink slipped skin and the shape of the fragment conclude it to be an actual doll fragment. The last doll leg is from the plowzone surface and is mostly complete except for the foot. The leg appendage is clear glazed, undecorated, measures 3.7 cm long and has a swivel joint.

A complete bisque (or unglazed porcelain) marble (Figure 32c) measuring 14 mm or 9/16" in diameter was recovered from Unit 39, level 4. The second marble (Unit 35, level 1) also was made from bisque but was fragmented. Bisque marbles were first produced in the latter part of the eighteenth century in Germany (Randall 1971:104).

The two artifacts that are non toy related are smoking pipe fragments. The first fragment (Figure 32d) from the general surface, is made from redware and is a stem fragment. No seam line is present on the fragment. The second pipe fragment is from Unit 42, level 3 and is part of a bowl. It is also made of redware and has no apparent seams.

Furnishings

Ceramic furnishing-related artifacts comprise 0.22% of the assemblage ($n=1$). Only one fragment of a chamber pot rim made of whiteware makes up the furnishings category. The rim is flanged and undecorated (Surface Unit N480E490).

Glassware

A total of 785 glass artifacts comprising 13.95% of the total artifact assemblage was recovered from the site (Appendix D, Table 1-4). Seventy-nine of these artifacts were recovered from the surface collection. The majority of these are Kitchen-related items ($n=442$) comprising 56.31% of the glass assemblage. The remainder of the glassware assemblage is comprised of



Figure 32. Clothing, personal, transportation, and prehistoric related artifacts, Site 14SH359.

architectural glass ($n=304$), clothing ($n=3$), furnishings ($n=9$), unidentifiable ($n=25$) and other ($n=2$).

Kitchen

The kitchen glasswares were initially separated into container and noncontainer categories. Container glass was divided into vessel part and vessel form. Representative vessel forms include food and drink related, medicines, and tablewares.

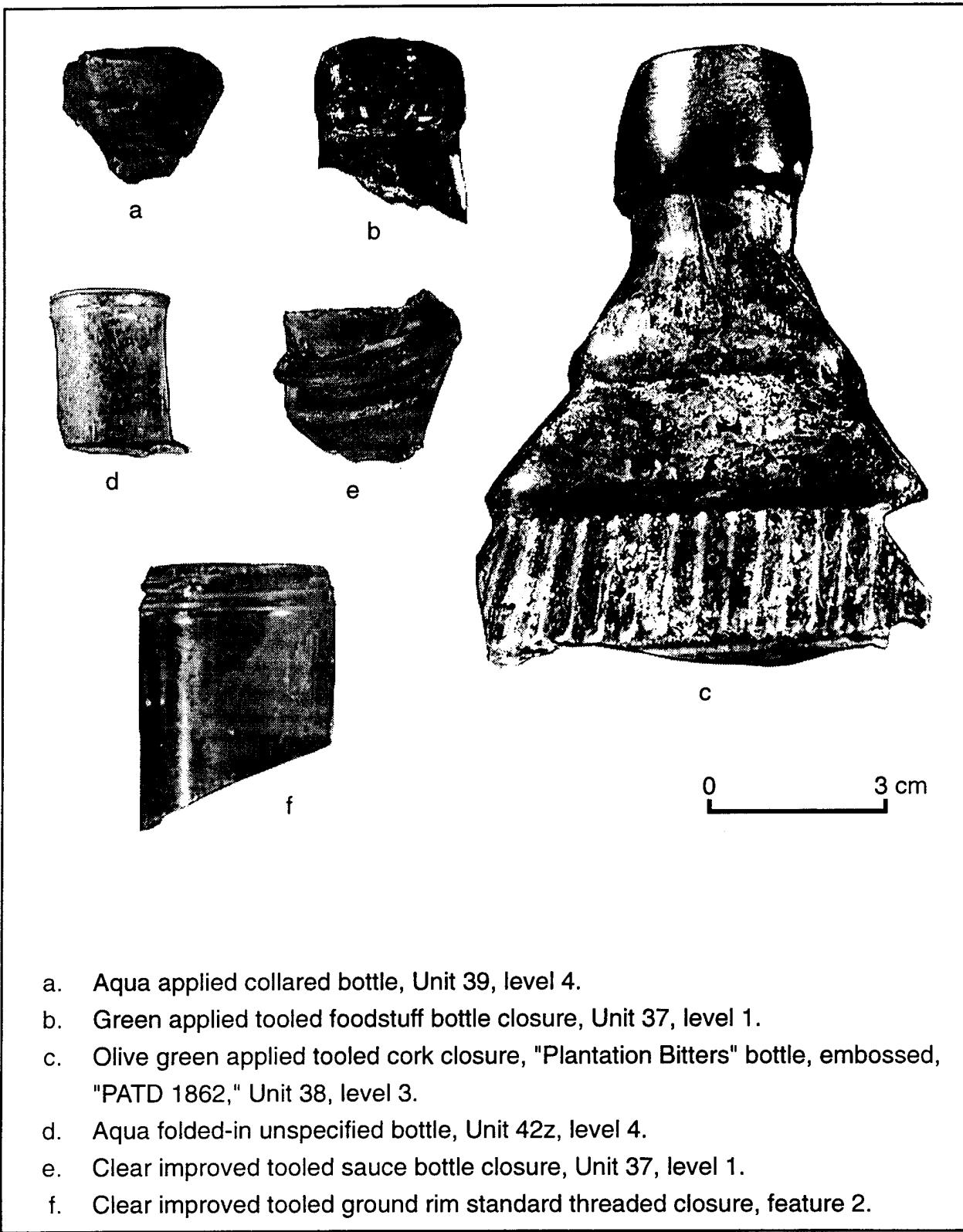
Diagnostic container glass from the site consists of 5 post bottom plate mold/snap case, 1860-1900 (Jurney and Moir 1987:274); 1 post bottom plate mold/improved pontil, 1858-1875 (Deiss 1981:93); 7 applied tooled cork, 1825-1875 (Deiss 1981:94) (Figure 33a-c); 1 cracked off cork; 1 applied string cork, to the mid 1840s (Deiss 1981:93); 1 folded, to the early 1870s (Deiss 1981:94) (Figure 33d); 2 improved tool cork closure, 1870-1915 (Deiss 1981:94) (Figure 33e); 1 improved tool Lightning closure, 1875-1915 (Deiss 1981:94); one standard thread (Figure 33f) and 1 machine-made standard thread, 1919-1950 (Deiss 1981:94). The majority of the container glass from Site 14SH359 was produced during the nineteenth century.

Unfortunately, no whole bottles or jars were recovered from the excavation at Site 14SH359. Like the ceramics, most of the glass has been seriously disturbed. As a result, most of the glass is broken into such small fragments that identification of vessel and method of manufacture is nearly impossible.

Twenty-eight lip/neck fragments were recovered that are mostly representative of the mid to late-nineteenth century (Appendix D, Tables 1-3). Manganese glass fragments ($n=17$) were dated to 1880-1920 (Diess 1981), the approximate years when manganese was added to glass during manufacture. All manganese artifacts are no doubt related to the later Euroamerican occupation period.

The most intact lip/neck fragment recovered from Site 14SH359 is from Unit 38, level 3 (Figure 33c). The bottle fragment is an olive-green color, has an applied tooled cork closure and appears to represent a log cabin roof. Embossed letters on an intact shoulder bear "PATENTED/1862". This is undoubtedly part of a "Plantation Bitters" bottle. Had the opposite side of the shoulder been intact, it would have had embossed on its surface "S.T. DRAKE'S/ 1860/ PLANTATION/ X/ BITTERS". This type of bitters bottle was first patented to P.H. Drake, of Binghamton, N.Y., on February 18, 1862. The date 1860 is actually a commemorative date for E. L. Drake, possibly related to the other Drakes', striking oil in Pennsylvania (Smith 1972:169).

Other lip/neck fragments recovered are representative of other alcoholic beverages. Wine/Champaign, beer/ale, and brandy style closures are all present in the assemblage. The wine/champaign closures (Unit 39, level 4 and Feature 3) are both aqua in color and have applied tooled collars. Both of the beer/ale lip/necks are a dark brown with one having an applied tooled cork closure (Unit 43, level 3) and the other a later dated improved tooled cork closure (Unit 38,



- a. Aqua applied collared bottle, Unit 39, level 4.
- b. Green applied tooled foodstuff bottle closure, Unit 37, level 1.
- c. Olive green applied tooled cork closure, "Plantation Bitters" bottle, embossed, "PATD 1862," Unit 38, level 3.
- d. Aqua folded-in unspecified bottle, Unit 42z, level 4.
- e. Clear improved tooled sauce bottle closure, Unit 37, level 1.
- f. Clear improved tooled ground rim standard threaded closure, feature 2.

Figure 33. Bottle closures, Site 14SH359.

level 4). The brandy bottle is a dark green with an applied tooled cork closure (Unit 44, level 1).

Food related lips/necks include canning jar rims. Types of canning jar closures represented are the ground rim with screw threads that date from ca. 1858 to 1915 (Deiss 1981:94), and machine-made. Non-food and non-beverage-related lips/necks include two unspecified medicine bottles. The majority of the diagnostic lip/neck artifacts are representative of the mid to late mid nineteenth century and are from the lower levels of units found within the woods (Units 38, 39, 43, and Feature 3).

Basal fragments total 33. None of the basal fragments appeared to have been machine-made nor were any manufacturers' marks present. Representative beverage bottles are mostly alcohol-related ($n=12$) and include fragments from wine, beer/ale, case, shoe-fly flask, and other unspecified flasks. The wine bottle fragment is a dark olive-green while the case and spirits/ale bottles are a dark brown. Due to the fragmentary size of these sherds, method of manufacture for most of these bases was unobtainable. However, one of the flasks was definitely made from a three-piece mold and improved pontil (Unit 38, level 4). The shoe-fly flask is colorless and dates from the late 1870s to 1915 (Deiss 1981:69). An unspecified medicine bottle with recessed panels was recovered from Unit 37, level 1.

Body fragments were identified as to vessel form and vessel type where possible. These make up 84.61% ($n=374$) of the kitchen glassware total and were recovered from test units and the surface collection (Appendix D, Tables 1 and 3). Embossed body fragments number only 31 of the total glassware container assemblage. Various embossed unidentifiable jar/bottle fragments include only fragments of embossing such as " ---OIN---"; " ---ION---"; and " ---ME---". These, along with the remaining bottle/jar embossed fragments, are too fragmentary to be legible. However, the glass color fragments, in descending order of frequency, are aqua, clear, brown, olive-green, manganese, green, and opaque-white. The aqua and clear fragments represent 63.28% of the body fragment total. Some of these fragments are identifiable as to vessel form (Appendix D, Tables 1-4).

Representative vessel forms from body fragments include possible "Log Cabin," case, beer/ale, wine, pictorial or figured flask, cathedral pickling jar, canning jar, and tumbler. The cathedral pickling jar fragment is an almost emerald green and appears to be the gothic style. Gothic style was popular from about 1860-1900 (Deiss 1981:95).

The total of glass tablewares is 22. These tablewares, manufactured after 1850, include mostly press molded forms. Representative forms are tumblers ($n=8$), cup ($n=1$), stemmed ware ($n=2$), and unidentifiable hollowware that undoubtedly represents a cup or bowl ($n=10$).

Jar inset caps comprise the noncontainer kitchen glass. There are 6 opaque white inset caps. All of the inset caps are nonembossed dating ca. 1870-1930 (Jurney and Moir 1987:275).

Architecture

Architectural glass is represented entirely by flat plate glass or window pane glass which makes up 38.73% ($n=304$) of all glass at the site. Most of the glass was aqua colored ($n=301$) as opposed to colorless or clear ($n=3$). Due to the fragmentary nature of the sherds, identification of method of manufacture was not attempted. Pane thickness, however, was measured to separate regular flat glass from plate glass and safety glass. Measurements recorded of all the fragments are less than 3.0 mm, indicating common window glass. Had there been any flat glass greater than 3.0 mm, this would have indicated a special pane glass or special flat glass for non-window functions supporting a later date (Diess 1981) (Jurney and Moir 1987:278).

Clothing

The clothing glassware is represented by the glass functional categories at 0.38% ($n=3$). Three glass beads, which are all associated with the Laughton/Nadeau occupation, are contained within this category. The first glass bead is whole, appears to be hollow cane manufactured, circular and colored opaque blue with many small air bubbles (Figure 32e). It was recovered from Surface Unit N470E480 and measures 8.5 mm wide and 6.8 mm long. The second glass bead is only a small fragment but appears tubular in shape and green in color. It was recovered from Unit 36, plowzone. Another glass bead fragment was recovered from a flotation sample taken of Unit 41, level 3 (midden). It appears to be a circular bead, but not as fat as the blue one already mentioned. The glass color is an opaque-black with patina present.

Furnishings

Furnishings comprise 1.15% ($n=9$) of the total glass assemblage. Colorless lantern glass comprises this entire glass category. The majority are undecorated body fragments ($n=6$). Rim finishes consist of only "pearl top" or crimped rims. The pearl rim was patented in 1883 by the George A. Macbeth Co., and the variations on this style quickly followed (Haskell 1981:51). Two of the crimped rims were recovered from Unit 42, level 5 while the third rim was recovered from Unit 43a, level 3.

Unidentifiable

A total of 25 glass fragments comprises this category, representing 3.18% of the glass assemblage. These fragments were all melted beyond recognition making identification of function or type impossible. However, where color is distinguishable it is noted.

Other

A total of two artifacts was recovered which are potentially identifiable but which cannot be assigned to a particular function at this time (Appendix D, Tables 2 and 4). Other artifacts make up 0.25% of the glass artifact assemblage. Materials that comprise this category include a

glass insulator and a possible glass scraper from an unknown bottle/jar (Figure 32f). The glass fragment is made from manganese glass (ca. 1880-1920 Deiss 1981), is triangular in shape and appears to have been worked on at least one, possibly two, sides. Plowing blades may attribute for some of the flaking. However, small pressure flaking appears so detailed that it is likely retouched. Other glass scrapers have been recovered from historic Native American sites such as the Leavenworth site in northern South Dakota (Krause 1972:82) and Fort Berthold in North Dakota (Smith 1972:174)

Metal

A total of 917 metal artifacts was recovered from the excavations at Site 14SH359 making up 16.29% of the entire assemblage (Appendix D, Tables 1-4). Nine of these artifacts were recovered from the controlled surface collection, the remainder from excavation. The majority is iron/steel ($n=900$), followed in frequency by brass ($n=13$), white metal alloy ($n=2$), zinc ($n=1$) and copper ($n=1$).

Not surprisingly, architecture contained the most metal ($n=722$) followed by other ($n=124$), fencing ($n=15$), unidentifiable ($n=12$), tools/activities ($n=11$), transportation ($n=12$), clothing (10), arms ($n=3$), personal ($n=3$), furnishings ($n=3$), machinery ($n=1$), and finally kitchen ($n=1$).

Kitchen

Kitchen-related artifacts make up only 0.10% ($n=1$) of the total metal artifact assemblage. A three pronged fork fragment made from iron/steel was the only kitchen artifact (Excavation Block C Unit 42z level 1) (Figure 34a).

Architecture

Architecturally-related artifacts consist of 78.73% ($n=722$) of the total metal artifact assemblage. All of the architecturally-related artifacts recovered from Site 14SH359 are manufactured from iron. These included whole common square nails ($n=230$), fragmented common square nails ($n=189$), whole square brad head nails ($n=1$), square spike fragment ($n=2$), unidentifiable square nail fragments ($n=130$), whole common wire nails ($n=86$), fragmented common wire nails ($n=19$), roofing wire nails ($n=1$), wire spike fragment ($n=1$), unidentifiable wire nails ($n=29$), whole nails of unidentified manufacture ($n=9$) and nail fragments of unidentified manufacture ($n=1$). The square nails were all modern machine-cut nails which were first manufactured in the 1830s and remained popular until about 1900 when the cheaper wire nails, introduced in 1886, replaced them. From 1886 to 1900, both types of nails were used for different reasons. Cut nails were thought to have greater holding power while wire nails were believed to be less likely to split wood (Lees 1986:93).

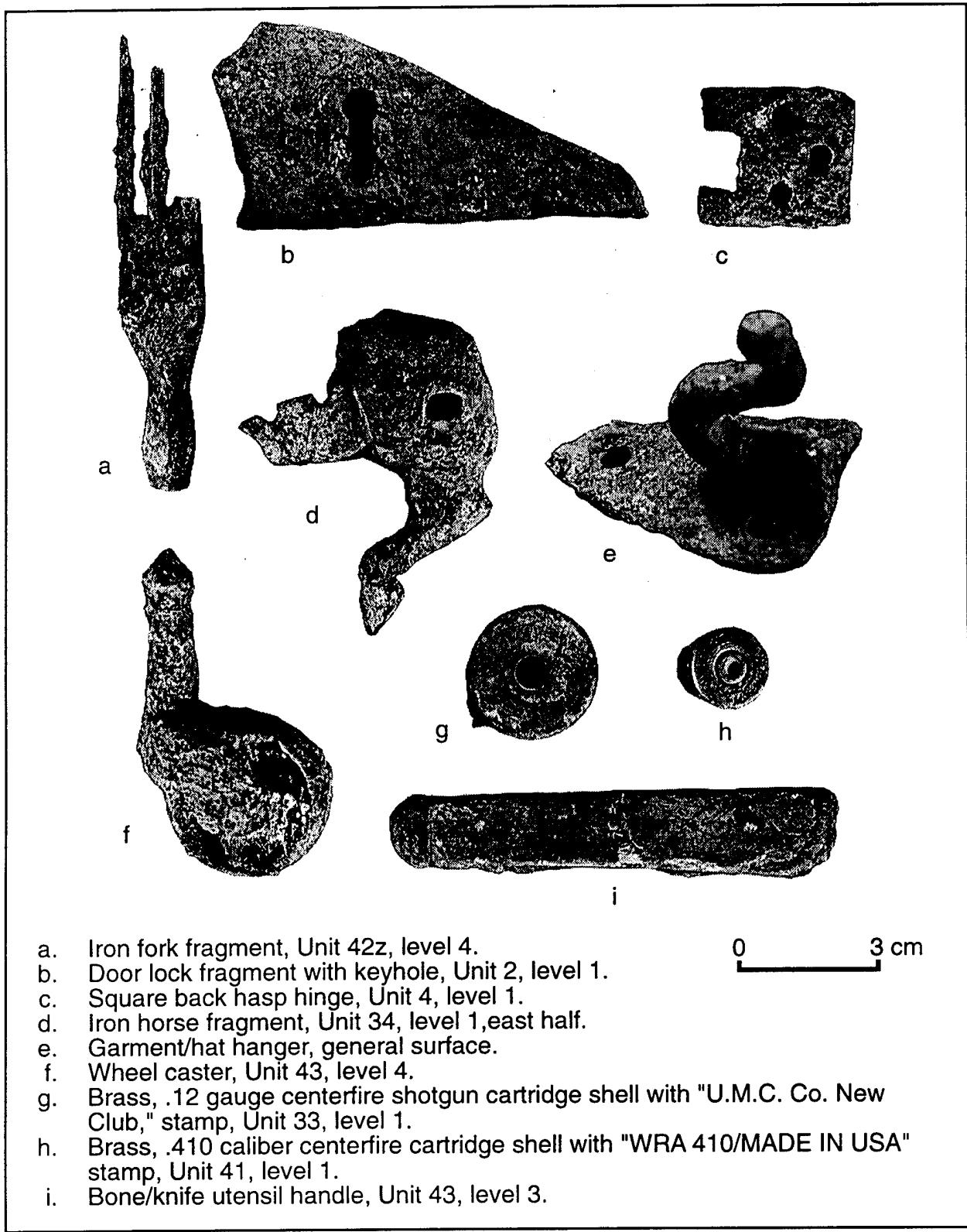


Figure 34. Metal artifacts, Site 14SH359.

The much greater number of machine-cut nails ($n=552$) compared to wire nails ($n=136$) indicates that the majority of the construction which took place at Site 14SH359 occurred before 1886. Feature 2 contained the most nails ($n=88$), followed by Feature 1 ($n=69$), then Feature 3 ($n=18$) and lastly Feature 4 ($n=8$). Other architecturally-related artifacts include tack ($n=1$), staples ($n=10$), screws ($n=5$), screw/nuts ($n=3$), hook ($n=1$), door lock fragment with keyhole ($n=1$) (Figure 34b) and square back hasp hinge ($n=1$) (Figure 34c).

Clothing

Artifacts relating to clothing use make up 1.10% ($n=10$) of the artifact assemblage and includes both iron ($n=3$) and brass ($n=7$) (Appendix D, Tables 1-4). Iron artifacts include buckles (Figure 32g-h) ($n=3$). Brass artifacts include a buckle ($n=1$), buttons ($n=2$), boot rivet ($n=1$) and boot/shoe eyelets ($n=3$). One of the iron buckles may be from a man's pants or vest (Figure 32g). The brass buckle appears to have served as a suspender or hose supporter (Figure 32i). Of the brass buttons, one measures 1.4 cm in diameter and has a four hole inset (Figure 32j) while the other measures 1.6 cm in diameter and has a hole in the center with a broken bar shank (Figure 32k).

Personal

Personal artifacts make up only 0.33% ($n=3$) of the metal artifact assemblage (Appendix D, Tables 2 and 4). The majority of personal artifacts are made of brass ($n=2$) and include a possible barrette fragment (Figure 32l) and a smashed thimble (Figure 32m). It is possible that the barrette may also be clothing related, possibly a fancy buckle fragment. The personal-related iron artifact is a toy horse fragment from Excavation Block B Unit 34 level 1 east half. The fragment has been molded either bi-symmetrically as evidenced by one side's presence or there may never have been another half to the piece. The presence of a hole in the chest area is a puzzlement. This may have served for an attachment bar or screw of some kind (Figure 34d).

Furnishings

A total of four iron artifacts relating to household furnishings was recovered from the site (Appendix D, Tables 2 and 4). This category consists of 0.33% of the total metal artifact assemblage, and includes a possible handle fragment from a pair of scissors ($n=1$), a garment/hat hanger ($n=1$) (Figure 34e), an iron wheel coaster ($n=1$) (Figure 34f) and a brass clock gear wheel ($n=1$) (Figure 35g).

Arms

Three ammunition or arms-related artifacts comprising 0.33% of the metal artifact assemblage were recovered (Appendix D, Tables 2 and 4). Two of these are the remains of .12 gauge brass spent shotgun centerfire shells. Both of the shotgun shells are stamped "U.M.C. Co. New Club" (Figure 34g) which stands for Union Metallic Cartridge Company and dates from

1867-1911 (Jurney and Moir 1987:290). The remaining arms artifact is a .410 caliber centerfire cartridge shell with "WRA 410/MADE IN USA" (Figure 34h) stamped on it. WRA stands for Winchester Repeating Arms Company, New Haven, Connecticut and dates from 1940 to the present (Jurney and Moir 1987:289). This later dating shell was found on the surface and is no doubt related to the twentieth century farmstead occupation or simply to hunters.

Fencing Debris

Fifteen fence fragments comprising 1.64% of the metal artifact assemblage were recovered from Site 14SH359 (Appendix D, Tables 2 and 4). Three of the artifacts are barbed wire fragments, 11 are fencing staples and one is a chain link. Excavation of Units 29, 30 and 31 recovered the most fencing artifacts (n=8).

Machinery

Only one machinery artifact was recovered from Site 14SH359 that makes up 0.10% of the metal assemblage (Appendix D, Tables 2). The sole artifact is an iron gear wheel found in Feature 4 that may be part of some type of farm machinery.

Tools/Activities

The tools and tool fragments (n=11) recovered from the site make up 1.20% of the metal assemblage (Appendix D, Tables 2 and 4). These are indicative of a variety of activities, most of which are related to farming or the upkeep of the farm and equipment. Tools include a file (n=1), a ratchet tool accessory (n=1) (Figure 35a), a boring implement (n=1) (Figure 35b), and hardware consisting of bolts (n=5) and nuts (n=3).

Transportation

A total of 12 transportation-related artifacts was recovered from the excavations at the site, comprising 1.31% of the total metal artifact assemblage (Appendix D, Tables 2 and 4). Most of the artifacts are made of iron (n=10) and related to horse and oxen oriented modes of transportation. Wagon parts include a whiffletree hook (n=1) (Figure 35c), a whiffletree tip/cockeye fragment (n=1), bolster plate top (n=1), rod fragment (n=1), long joint end (n=1) (Figure 35d), brakeshoe fragment (n=1) (Figure 35e), and an oxen ring.

Harness parts include a snap (n=1), buckles (n=2) (Figure 35f), and two rosettes. Rosettes served as an ornamentation for the saddle rather than a practical accessory. Both rosettes are made from a white metal alloy. One rosette (Figure 32n) is a small fragment with a stamped or molded impression of leaves in the center. Gilt covers the decorated side uniformly while the opposite side is plain. The other rosette is a simple undecorated half fragment (Figure 32o). The center appears raised, but there is no decoration.

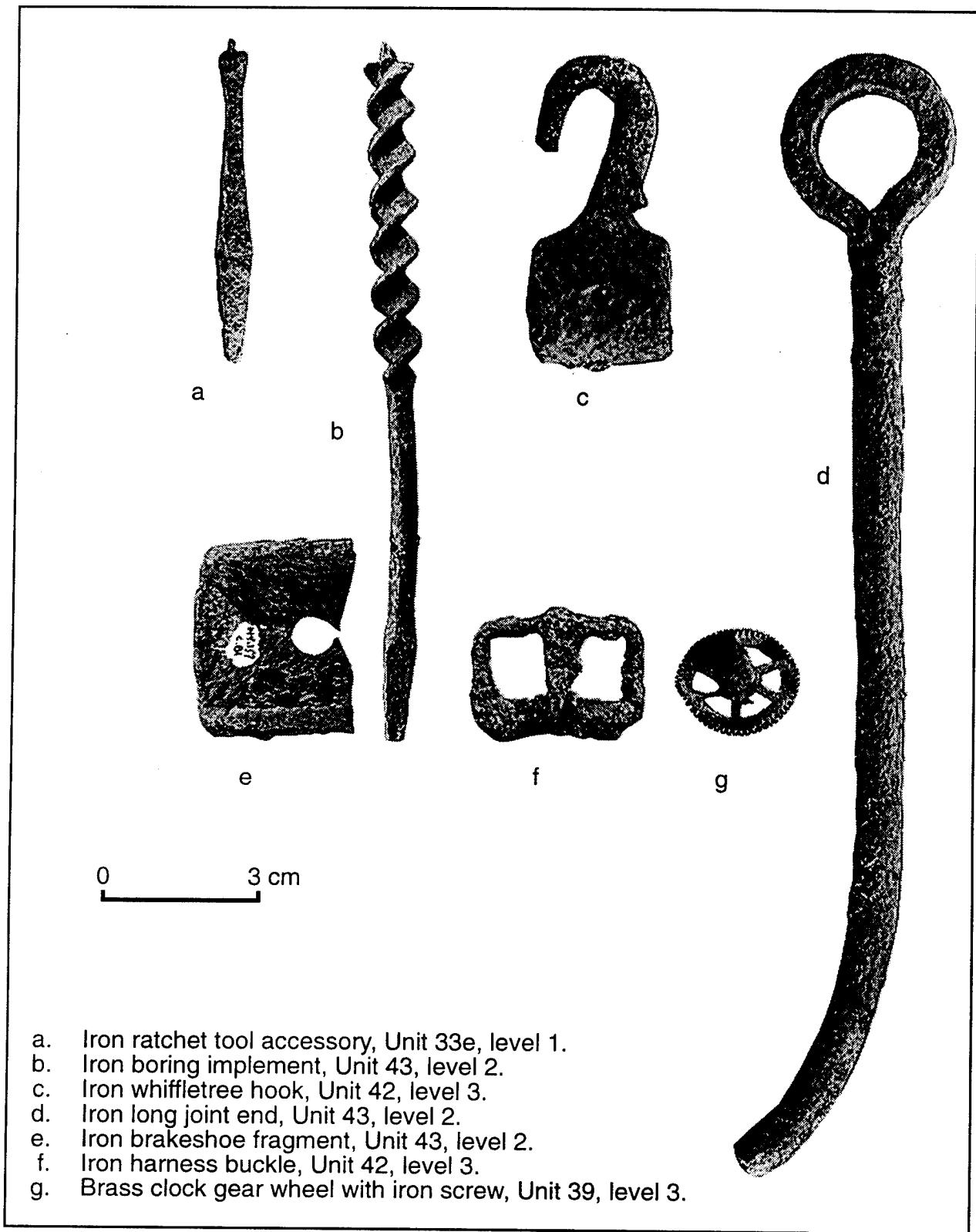


Figure 35. Metal artifacts, Site 14SH359.

Other

A total of 124 artifacts was recovered which are potentially identifiable but which cannot be assigned to a particular function at this time (Appendix D, Tables 2 and 4). Other artifacts make up 13.52% of the metal artifact assemblage. Different types of metals that comprise this category include mostly iron ($n=119$) followed by copper ($n=1$), zinc ($n=1$) and brass ($n=1$). Iron artifacts include sheet fragments ($n=88$), rod fragments ($n=2$), plate fragments ($n=14$), bar fragments ($n=10$), wire that does not appear to be fencing-related ($n=1$), disk fragments ($n=2$), and spring coil fragments ($n=2$).

Other metal includes a zinc sheet ($n=1$), a copper spring coil ($n=1$), and a brass military epaulet ($n=1$). The nearly complete brass shoulder epaulet is composed of a single scale (Figure 32p) which was worn as an enlisted man's accoutrement. The width of the scale is approximately 7 cm long and 2.8 cm wide.

Unidentifiable

A total of 12 unidentifiable pieces of metal was recovered from the excavations at the site, all of which are manufactured from iron/steel (Appendix D, Tables 2 and 4). These consist of oxidized iron which is far too rusted to identify either type or function. Unidentifiable metal artifacts make up 1.31% of the assemblage.

Other

This artifact class includes all artifacts consisting of materials other than ceramic, glass, metal, or a composite of two or more of the primary materials (Appendix D, Tables 2 and 4). These various artifacts represent 61.68% of the total assemblage ($n=3,255$). The architecture category contains the most material within this class, totaling 3,215, or 92.60% of the other functional category. The rest of the functional categories, kitchen ($n=126$), other ($n=114$), clothing ($n=11$), personal ($n=3$), furnishings ($n=1$), transportation ($n=1$) and unidentifiable ($n=1$), also are contained in this class.

Kitchen

Kitchen items consist of 126 artifacts that represent 3.63% of the other class. A knife handle with a bone and iron/steel handle (Figure 34i) was recovered from Unit 43, level 3. Iron pegs attach the outer bone to the inner iron.

The rest of the kitchen items consisted of floral and faunal remains. These materials are discussed in detail within Chapter VII and Chapter VIII.

Architecture

Architectural remains consist of roofing slate (n=8), mortar (n=700), brick (n=217) and limestone (n=2,290). Most of the limestone was recovered from Feature 2 and the unit excavations around the same feature (Units 32 and 32a-e). High concentrations were also recovered from the midden in Block C. Most of the mortar was recovered from Feature 3 (n=319) and the midden within Block C. As for the brick fragments recovered from the site, all of these are too fragmentary to identify method of manufacture. All of the brick collected from the site was recovered from unit and feature excavations. Excavation of both Units 33 and 34 as well as associated Feature 2 recovered the highest quantity of brick fragments.

Clothing

Clothing-related items consist of a bone button, six shell buttons and four boot/shoe sole fragments. Together, the eleven artifacts make up 0.32% of the other class assemblage (Appendix D, Tables 2 and 4).

All of the buttons range in size from 14 mm to 19 mm in diameter. The bone button, from Unit 38, level 4, is an undecorated four holed sew-through type (Figure 36a). Two of the shell buttons are sew-through with four holes and are undecorated (Figure 36b-c). These both came from Unit 42, level 3 and backdirt from Unit 42. Two other shell buttons recovered also are sew-through with two holes (Figure 36d-e). One is from the top of Feature 2 and the other from Unit 33d, level 1. The last shell button is from Unit 42z, level 1 (midden) and has a brass ball on the front side with a broken iron shank on the back side (Figure 36f). Mollusk shell buttons were produced in the United States ca. 1887-1938. The rivers in the Midwest were a significant supply source of raw shell for the shell button industry during the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (Parmalee 1969).

The last type of clothing recovered is four fragments of a leather sole from either a shoe or boot. One round iron peg is still present in one of the fragments while four holes where pegs once were are also present. Iron pegs were used prior to 1860 in the manufacturing of shoes (Anderson 1968:64).

Personal

The only personal artifacts within the Other assemblage are three vulcanite hair comb fragments. Vulcanite, or hard rubber, is a combination of sulphur and rubber invented by Charles Goodyear in 1839. A patent was granted for the process on June 15, 1844 (Luscomb 1967:90-1). One is from Feature 1 and the other two from Unit 38, level 4 and Unit 42, level 5. These last two fragments attach to each other (Figure 32q). Two small holes are present where the gripping area is located. There may have been a type of ornamental attachment originally.

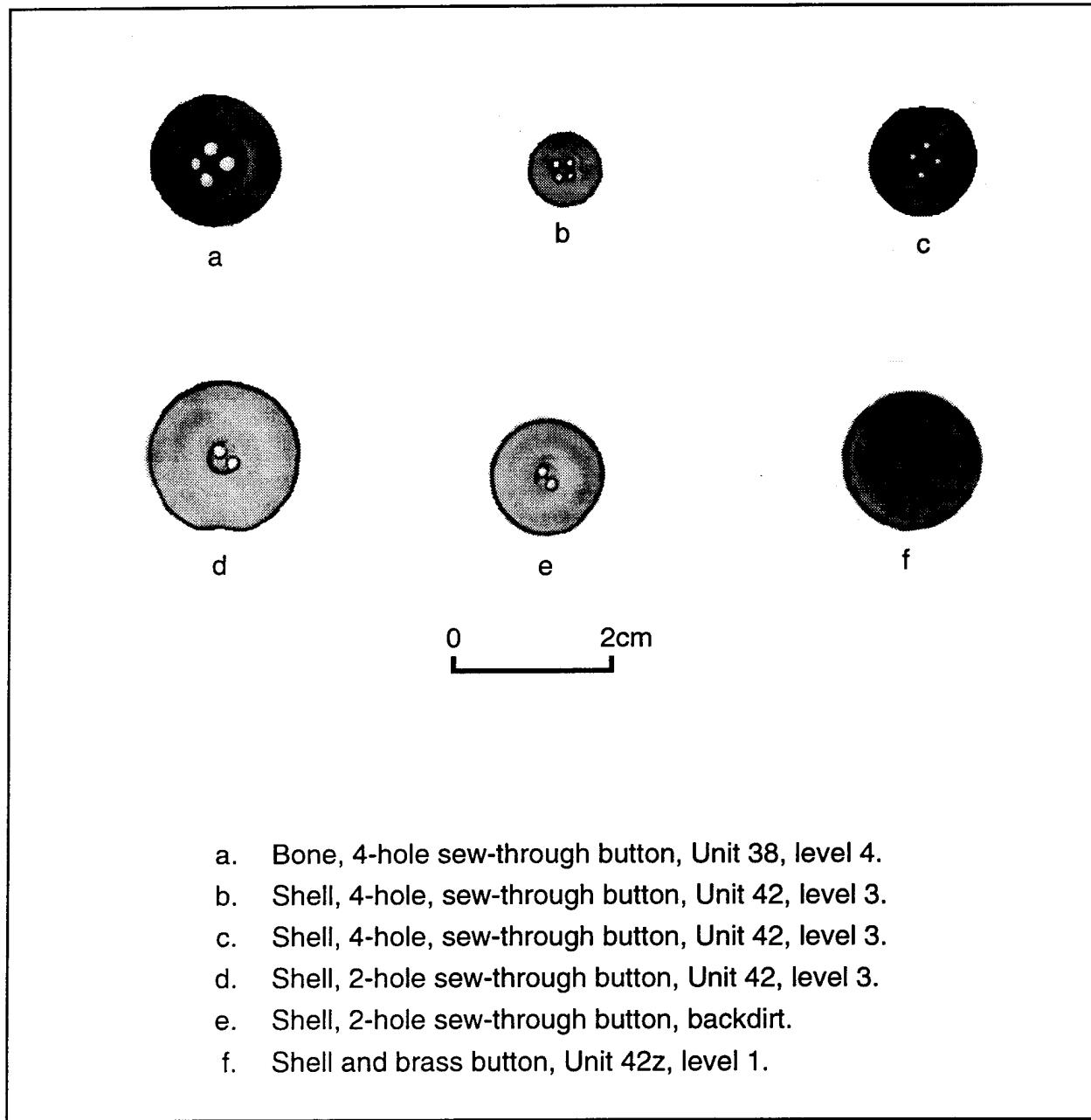


Figure 36. Bone and shell buttons, Site 14SH359.

Furnishings

Furnishings includes only one item which is a clock gear wheel (Figure 35g). The actual wheel is made from brass but there is an iron/steel screw in the center of the wheel. This artifact was recovered from Unit 39, level 3.

Transportation

Again, only one artifact, an intact rosette, is present within this category of the Other assemblage. The intact rosette has a raised circular center and radiating flowers adjacent to and surrounding the outer center (Figure 32r). Small traces of gilt are present on this side of the rosette that appears to be a brass plate covering a plain white alloy. The rosette measures 4.2 cm in diameter.

Unidentifiable

Unidentifiable is represented by a single fragment of plastic. This may actually be a dyed celluloid piece which has an appearance similar to a tortoise shell. Celluloid dates as early as 1869 (Luscomb 1967:36-7).

Other

Other items total 114 and include a brass/iron object ($n=1$), sandstone ($n=10$), gravel ($n=1$), igneous/metamorphic rock ($n=17$), cinders ($n=35$), coal ($n=48$) and prehistoric artifacts ($n=2$) (Appendix D, Tables 2 and 4). The sandstone and other rock are considered as naturally occurring elements as none of these exhibited signs of being worked. Cinders and coal appear to be associated with household heating processes. The brass/iron object is a small, tapered, hollow brass cylinder with an opening at the widest end and a loop at the other end. It measures 1.9 cm in length and 0.6 cm wide at the opening. Slightly above the open end and inside the cylinder is a small iron rivet. The function of this artifact remains a puzzlement.

Prehistoric artifacts are represented by two lithic tools. The first tool is a biface tool fragment made from a fossiliferous white chert (Figure 32s). The second tool is possibly made from slate and although it shows signs of plow impact, the presence of multiple parallel grooved lines on one side suggests that this may have been an abrading tool.

Private Collection

Dwight Streeter's private collection of artifacts recovered from Site 14SH359 was analyzed on December 6, 1993. These artifacts are no doubt associated with the mid-nineteenth century occupation of the site but are not included with the total assemblage. They are discussed and illustrated below, however. Material classes present within the collection include: ceramics ($n=8$), glass ($n=3$), metal ($n=29$) and other ($n=3$).

Ceramics

Ceramics are represented by clothing ($n=1$) and personal ($n=7$) functional categories.

Clothing.

The sole clothing ceramic item is a four hole sew-through porcelain button (Figure 37a). Detailed blue handpainting with a floral design is also present on the front side.

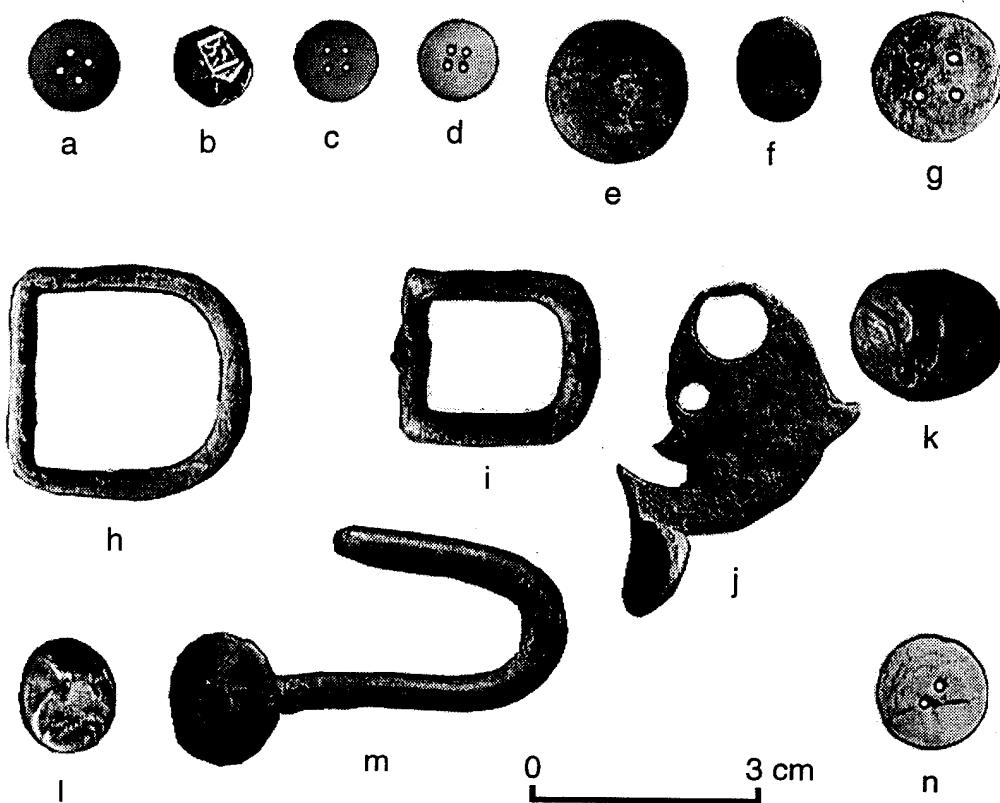
Personal.

Personal ceramics include three marbles and four smoking pipe fragments. One of the marbles is made from a reddish brown clay (Figure 38a) and is undecorated with a diameter measuring 1.3 cm. Production of clay marbles was prominent in the latter part of the nineteenth century and early twentieth centuries (Randall 1971:103). The other two marbles are made from porcelain with one undecorated and measuring 1.7 cm (Figure 38b) and the other with a ring of red handpaint around it measuring 1.5 cm (Figure 38c). Porcelain marbles were first produced in the late eighteenth century in Germany (Randall 1971:104). Porcelain and plain clay marbles have also been found at Fort Scott, Kansas, which was occupied from 1842-1853 (Reynolds 1983:358-61).

Of the smoking pipe fragments, one is made from a dark reddish clay, one from stoneware and two from a white clay. The reddish clay fragment is a pipe stem (Figure 38d) with just part of the bowl base still present. Color actually varies from a dark reddish brown to a dark gray in some areas. Mold seams are present on the fragment which measures 1.9 cm in diameter at the bit. The opening at the bit measures approximately 1.0 cm. As for the stoneware fragment, it is a pipe bowl with well-defined seams (Figure 38e). The paste has a uniform gray color. The last two pipe fragments are both made from a white clay. One is a pipe stem measuring 4.4 cm in length that tapers down to the bit (Figure 38f). The bit measures 8 mm in diameter with the opening only 3 mm in diameter. The remaining pipe fragment is a bowl base fragment. No dimensions were taken; however, two mold seams are present (Figure 38g).

Glass

Glass artifacts are the least represented with only three clothing artifacts. All glass artifacts are buttons. One button is a jet black style with a multifaceted face. It is only one piece with a single loop hole in back (Figure 37b). Glass buttons were popular from about 1840 and on into the early twentieth century (Luscomb 1967:88). The two remaining buttons are opaque-white sew-through with four holes. They are both undecorated and each measures 1.0 cm (Figure 37c-d).



- a. Porcelain, 4-hole sew-through button.
- b. Glass, jet black style button, multi faceted face with single loop hole in back.
- c. Glass, opaque white 4-hole sew-through button.
- d. Glass, opaque white 4-hole sew-through button.
- e. Brass, loop shank button.
- f. Brass, loop shank button.
- g. Zinc, 4-hole sew-through button.
- h. Brass, harness buckle.
- i. Brass, harness buckle.
- j. Metal inside lever for rifle flask.
- k. Brass, 3-piece General Service button.
- l. Brass, 3-piece General Service button.
- m. Metal belt hook.
- n. Shell, 2-hole sew-through button.

Figure 37. Buttons and metal artifacts, Site 14SH359, Dwight Streeter collection.

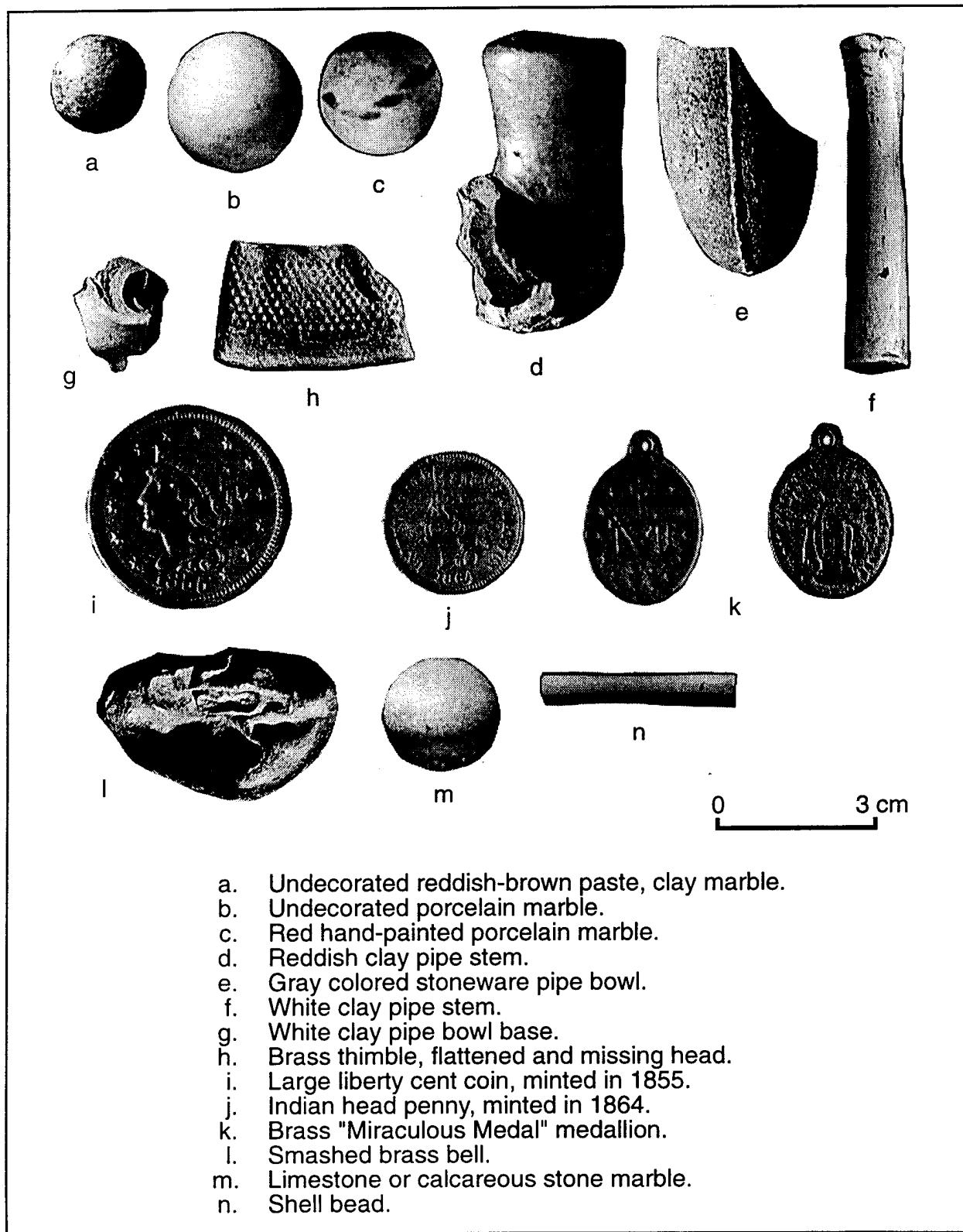


Figure 38. Artifacts, Site 14SH359, Dwight Streeter collection.

Metal

The metal class is the most represented class of the private collection. The functional categories for metal include: clothing (n=4), personal (n=3), transportation (n=3), arms (n=16) and military (n=3). It should be noted that these numbers are a reflection of Mr. Streeter's "survey" methods by the use of a metal detector and may not be representative of what was actually present.

Clothing.

The metal clothing items consist of buttons (n=3), a thimble (n=1) and buckles (n=2). The thimble is made from brass, smashed and missing the head (Figure 38h). It is unclear whether or not the head had been intentionally cut off.

One of the buttons is made from brass and is concave with an incised pattern on the front (Figure 37e). This button measures 1.6 cm in diameter and apparently had a loop shank attachment on the back as evidenced by a broken area. The second button is also made from brass and is undecorated with a loop shank (Figure 37f). The last button was originally a two-piece, but the back is now missing. It is made from zinc and is a plain, four hole sew-through style button (Figure 37g). Buttons of this kind have been found at Fort Atkinson, Nebraska and date from about 1800-1860 (Carlson 1979:56,185).

Personal.

Three personal artifacts include two coins and a medallion. One of the coins is a large Liberty cent (Figure 38i) which was minted in 1855. The second coin is an Indian head penny which was minted in 1864 (Figure 38j). The larger cent and half cent coins were replaced by the smaller coins in 1857 when it became too costly to produce the larger sized ones (Yeoman 1992:89).

The last personal metal artifact is an oval shaped religious medallion of the Virgin Mary with a loop on top so as to be worn as a necklace (Figure 38k). Present on the front side of the medallion is the Virgin Mary with her arms outstretched. Writing in the French language around her says "O MARIE CONCUE SANS PECHÉ PRIEZ POUR NOUS/ QUI AVONS RECOURS A VOUS". Translated this means "O Mary, conceived without sin, pray for us who have recourse to you." Below the Virgin is the date "1830". On the reverse side, there are twelve stars surrounding a cross which is on top of a large letter "M." Below the "M" are two hearts with a sword in the left one and possibly a flame in the second. This type of religious medallion is often called the "Miraculous Medal" and was first produced on June 30, 1832, in France (Smith 1972:161, cited Catholic Encyclopedia, 1913, vol. 10:115). This type of medal is also known today as Our Lady of Perpetual Help and is only slightly different from the older type.

Transportation.

Transportation is represented by two harness buckles and a brass bell. The harness buckles are both made from brass (Figures 37h-i). The brass bell is smashed, but still identifiable. Although bells were worn as bodily ornaments by many Native Americans, the Potawatomi were also known to have tied them to pack horses (Gibson 1980:94, cited Baerreis 1961:62) (Figure 38i).

Arms.

Arms-related items include, lead balls ($n=6$), lead bullets ($n=5$), brass shells ($n=4$), and an inside lever for a rifle flask ($n=1$) (Figure 37j).

The lead balls range in size from .22 to .56 caliber (Figure 39a-d). The lead bullets also range in size from .22 to .56 caliber (Figure 39e-o). Two of these are Minnie "balls" (Figure 39l & n) while another two bullets are Sharps (Figure 39m & o).

Military.

Two military buttons make up the majority of the military category. Both buttons are three-piece brass General Service with a symmetrical spread eagle and lined shield. Although both button designs are identical, their sizes differ. The larger measures 19 mm in diameter and is no doubt a coat button while the second measures only 14 mm in diameter and is probably part of a vest or cuff (Figure 37k-l). These type of General Service buttons date from ca. 1847-1880 (Wyckoff 1984:88). The remaining military artifact is a belt hook (Figure 46b).

Other.

The remaining class consists of only three artifacts which include a shell button, a shell bead and a limestone marble. The shell button is undecorated and is a two hole sew-through which measures 1.9 cm in diameter (Figure 37n). The final other artifact is a limestone or calcareous stone marble which measures 1.5 cm in diameter (Figure 38m). It has an off-white color and is undecorated. Calcareous stone marbles were produced mostly in Germany and widely exported after the mid-nineteenth century (Randall 1971:102). The shell bead (Figure 38n) is tubular and measures 2.1 cm in length and 3 mm in diameter. This shell bead is no doubt related to the Potawatomi occupation of the site.

Summary of Site 14SH359

Archival research has shown that Site 14SH359 was a farmstead first occupied by members of the Laughton-Nadeau families as early as 1848. A mixture of Potawatomi and Euroamerican blood, they remained there until about 1869. Only temporally diagnostic artifacts within the unplowed midden (Block C) of the wooded area support this occupation date. Artifacts

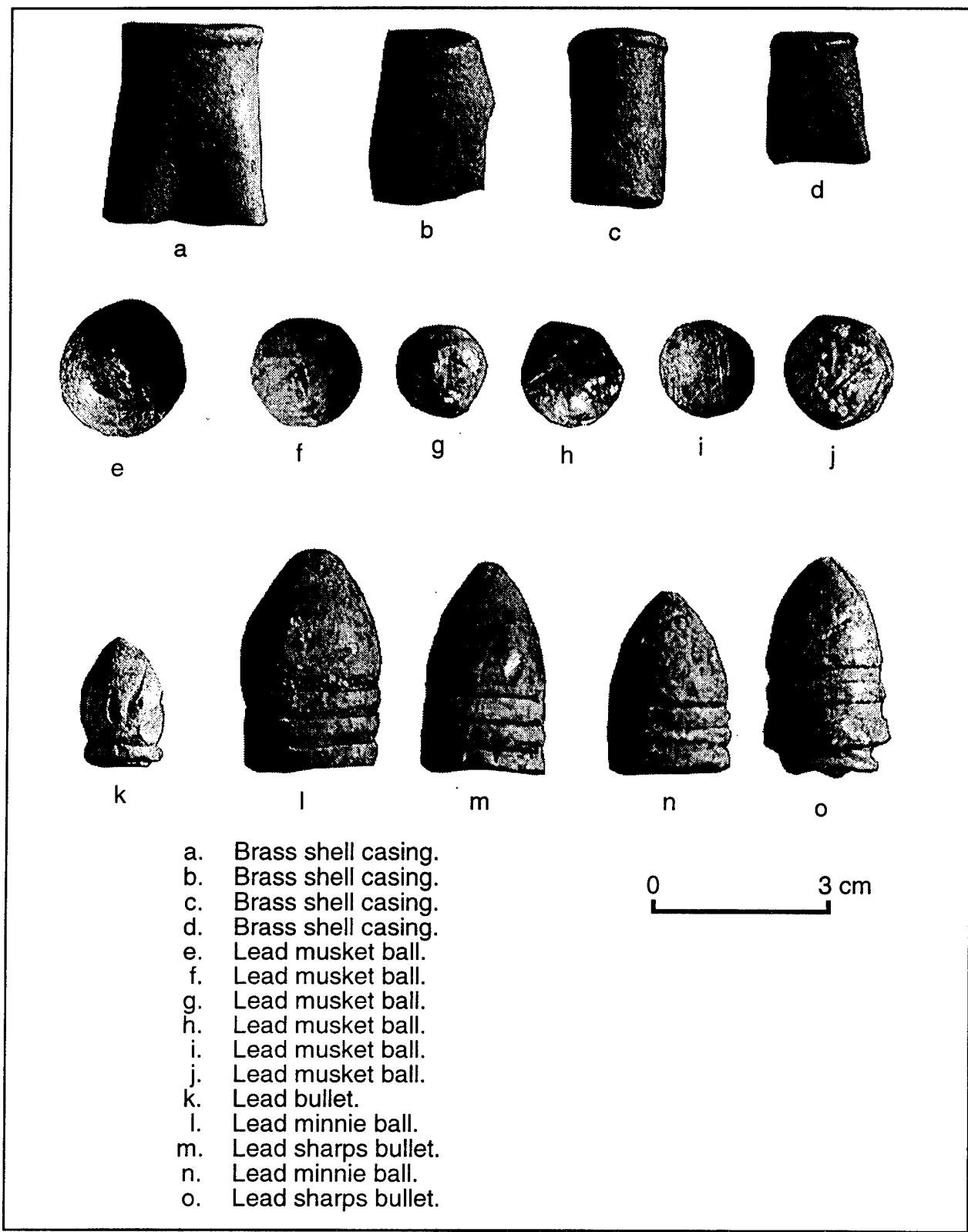


Figure 39. Cartridge casings and lead bullets, site 14SH359, Dwight Streeter collection.

representative of the mid nineteenth century and recovered from the plowzone of the cultivated field were found to be mixed with a few artifacts representative of a late-nineteenth to early twentieth century occupation (i.e decalcomania and gilt decorated ceramics, wire nails). Since the Potawatomi occupation, those few artifacts found to be temporally dated later were not included in determining the mean ceramic and glass dates for the Potawatomi occupation of the site. Likewise, those few mid nineteenth century artifacts found to be mixed with the later dated artifacts were not included.

Decorative elements and glazing techniques on refined earthenwares were recorded to aid in determining the mean ceramic date. The mean ceramic formula developed by South (1977:217) and suggested temporal ranges from previous studies (Price 1982; Lofstrum et al. 1982; Ketchum 1983, 1987; Wetherbee 1980), have been used in the calculation (Table 2). The mean ceramic date for an assemblage is calculated by multiplying the median date of temporally diagnostic ceramic artifacts by the number of sherds of that type. The types are then added together with the summation being divided by the total number of sherds to produce the mean ceramic date (South 1977:217-218). This formula generated a mean ceramic date of 1856.58 for the refined-ceramic, kitchen-related artifact assemblage.

A mean glass date formula was adapted from South's (1977:217) mean ceramic date formula as well. The mean glass date was calculated utilizing known temporal ranges from Deiss (1981), Fike (1987), Jurney and Moir (1987), Lorrain (1968), and Wilson (1981) (Table 3). Using the above formula a mean glass date of 1860.83 was calculated for the glass assemblage.

Unfortunately, this same formula could not be used in dating individual features due to the lack or sometimes absence of temporally diagnostic ceramics and glass. However, artifacts collected from the unplowed midden within Block C are diagnostic. Mid-nineteenth century glass artifacts recovered from this midden consist of a "Plantation" Bitters bottle which was patented in 1862 and two bottles with pontil marks. Refined earthenware ceramic artifacts recovered from the midden include annular, handpainted, transfer print, and plain shell edge decorated which are all indicative of a mid-nineteenth century occupation.

Other artifacts recovered from Site 14SH359 which are indicative of the Laughton-Nadeau occupation include three glass beads, a possible ceramic "seed" bead and three metal rosettes. Also, artifacts (i.e. religious medallion, shell bead, brass bell) collected by Dwight Streeter within the cultivated field, are indicative of a Native American occupation. The relatively small amount of Native American artifacts recovered would seem to indicate that the Potawatomi inhabitants of the site had adapted to a more Euroamerican way of living.

Artifacts recovered at Site 11-Ka-318A, the Windrose site, are similar to artifacts recovered from Site 14SH359. Test excavations at the Windrose site produced the following assemblage: 129 chipped and ground stone artifacts; 90 metal artifacts; 39 glass artifacts; 25 ceramic artifacts; 2 shell artifacts; 2 bone artifacts; 52 botanical specimens; and 4,000+ faunal specimens. Tankersley (1992) states that "Individually, many of these materials are not

fingerprints of an American Indian habitation. The complete assemblage is, however, consistent with what we would expect to find at an early-nineteenth century Potawatomi site located along the banks of the Kankakee River." Artifacts recovered at Site 14SH359 also point to a similar conclusion for part of its occupation. However, the artifacts also appear to indicate a transition to a more Euroamerican life style.

The chipped-stone artifacts recovered at the Windrose site may be contemporary with the rest of the assemblage, or, instead, may occur as a result of mixing of an early-nineteenth century and a prehistoric assemblage (Tankersley 1992). Only two chipped-stone artifacts, a biface tool fragment and a possible slate abrader, were recovered during the Phase III excavations at Site 14SH359. Phase II investigations conducted, at the Windrose site, by the Center for Archaeological Investigations, Southern Illinois University-Carbondale, during the summer of 1994 indicate that the historic Potawatomi occupation did in fact, intrude into a prehistoric horizon (Mark Wagner, personal communication). The presence of a light prehistoric occupation at Site 14SH359 may account for the chipped-stone artifacts recovered at the site, but it remains possible that they are of Potawatomi origin. Further investigations at Site 14SH359 will be necessary to determine the age of the chipped-stone assemblage.

The metal artifacts recovered at the Windrose site do not compare well with those recovered at Site 14SH359. While artifacts from both sites indicate a historic Native American occupation, no one specific type of metal artifact was recovered from both sites. Only the three white metal alloy rosettes and a religious medallion, at Site 14SH359, are indicative of a historic Native American occupation. By contrast, at the Windrose site, silver jewelry and brass tinkling cones as well as raw, ready-to-use, silver and brass, were recovered (Tankersley 1992). Interestingly, at the Windrose site lead shot was the only type of lead projectile found along with the waste associated with the production of lead projectiles. By contrast, at Site 14SH359, only large caliber lead bullets were recovered.

Glass beads indicative of a Potawatomi occupation occur at both sites. However, only three glass beads were recovered at Site 14SH359, while 25 glass beads were recovered at the Windrose site. The frequency of colored glass at both sites also is interesting and may be due to date of occupation at each site. At the Windrose site the most frequent color is olive-green, while at Site 14SH359 aqua colored glass is the most frequent. Olive-green glass is usually an earlier occurring glass color.

Ceramic artifacts indicative of a Potawatomi occupation are not present at either site, although what these artifacts would be remains to be determined. Artifacts recovered, at the Windrose site, indicate an early-nineteenth century occupation while, at Site 14SH359, a mid-nineteenth century occupation is indicated. A possible ceramic seed bead, at Site 14SH359, is the only recovered artifact that conclusively points to a Potawatomi occupation.

Artifacts made from shell are found at both sites and would indicate a Potawatomi occupation. Two tubular shell beads were recovered from the Windrose site (Tankersley 1992)

while one tubular shell bead was recovered at Site 14SH359 by Dwight Streeter.

A study of frequencies of the various functional artifact categories represented by the assemblage at Site 14SH359 indicates the site does represent the remains of a farmstead. The high number of architectural and kitchen artifacts recovered from the excavation would seem to indicate the remains of a domestic structure (Table 4). The presence of clothing, furnishing, personal, and tool/activity-related artifacts are also conclusive of a domestic/farmstead and the upkeep of such a site. The presence of military (shoulder scales, General Service buttons) and some transportation-related artifacts may be attributed to the Fort Riley Road which ran close by.

In sum, the artifacts recovered from Site 14SH359, particularly the wooded area, represent a mid-nineteenth century Native American farmstead occupation.

Table 2. Ceramic Temporal Ranges and Mean Dates of Site 14SH359 (+).

Attribute	Range	Mean	Reference
Whiteware			
Plain Shell	1848*-1860	1854	Lofstrum et al. 1982
Plain	1848*-1868**	1858	Price 1982
Embossed	1850-1868**	1859	Price 1982
Handpainted			
Flow Blue	1848*-1860	1854	Lofstrum et al. 1982
Annular	1848*-1860	1854	Lofstrum et al. 1982
Sprig/Floral	1848*-1860	1854	Lofstrum et al. 1982
Transfer Printed			
Blue	1848*-1860	1854	Lofstrum et al. 1982
Purple	1848*-1860	1854	Lofstrum et al. 1982
Brown	1848*-1860	1854	Lofstrum et al. 1982
Flow Blue	1848*-1860	1854	Lofstrum et al. 1982
Flow Black	1848*-1860	1854	Lofstrum et al. 1982
Ironstone			
Plain	1848*-1868**	1858	Wetherbee 1980
Yellow Ware			
Plain	1848*-1868**	1858	Ketchum 1983;1987
Slip-glazed (mottled)	1850-1868**	1859	Ketchum 1987
Annular	1848*-1868**	1858	Ketchum 1987

+ Known artifacts associated with post Laughton/Nadeau occupation excluded

*1848 represents the initial occupation of Site 14SH359

**1868 represents the terminal date of the Laughton/Nadeau occupation

Table 3. Bottle Glass Temporal Ranges and Mean Dates of Site 14SH359 (*, +).

Attribute	Range	Mean
Closures		
Folded	1848**-1868***	1858
Applied Tooled		
Cork	1848**-1868***	1858
Applied String	to mid 1840s	ca. 1848
Ground Rim		
Continuous Thread	1858-1868***	1863
Mold Blown Bases		
Three Piece		
Plate Bottom		
Improved Pontil	1858-1868***	1863
Snap Case	1860-1868***	1864
Unidentified	1860-1868***	1864
Unidentified		
Blowpipe Pontil	1858-1868***	1863
Body		
Paneled		
Plain	1858-1868***	1863
Embossed	1867-1868***	1867.5
Gothic (Cathedral)	1848**-1868***	1858
"Plantation" Bitters	1862-1868***	1865

+ Known artifacts associated with post Laughton/Nadeau occupation excluded

* After Deiss 1981; Lorrain 1968; Wilson 1981; Fike 1987; Jurney and Moir 1987

** 1848 represents the date of initial occupation of Site 14SH359

*** 1868 represents the terminal date of the Laughton/Nadeau occupation of Site 14SH359

Table 4. Functional Artifact Categories of Site 14SH359.

Functional Category	Ceramic #	Glass #	Metal #	Other #	Total #	%
Kitchen	442	442	1	126	1,011	17.96
Architecture	1	304	722	3,215	4,242	75.36
Furnishings	1	9	3	1	14	0.25
Personal	7	0	3	3	13	0.23
Clothing	4	3	10	11	28	0.50
Transportation	0	0	12	1	13	0.23
Machinery	0	0	1	0	1	0.02
Fencing	0	0	15	0	15	0.26
Tools	0	0	11	0	11	0.20
Arms	0	0	3	0	3	0.05
Unidentifiable	0	25	12	1	38	0.68
Other	0	2	124	114	240	4.26
Total	455	785	917	3,472	5,629	100.00

Chapter VII: Botanical Analysis

Kathryn E. Parker

Introduction

During archaeological investigations at Site 14SH359, flotation samples were routinely collected from each 10 cm level of excavation units and from each of three cultural features and a postmold. The samples were processed via a mechanical agitation method of water flotation similar to the SMAP machine (Dye and Moore 1978). After drying, botanical materials were extracted from the processed samples and placed in labeled plastic bags. These botanical remains, consisting primarily of charred wood and uncarbonized seeds, were submitted for analysis.

Methods of Botanical Analysis

Botanical materials in each of the labeled plastic bags were separated into two size fractions with the aid of a No. 10 (2 mm) geological screen. Using a standard binocular microscope at low magnification (7-10x), all plant materials in the large fraction (>2mm) were extracted and sorted into categories (e.g. wood or nutshell). Each category was subsequently weighed and the number of items in each counted. An attempt was made to identify all nutshell and the first 20 randomly selected wood fragments (or all wood fragments if there were less than 20) in the large fraction.

In this analysis, wood charcoal fragments examined, but found to be unidentifiable at least to family, were grouped into one of three general categories: ring porous hardwood, diffuse porous hardwood, and unidentifiable. Ring porous woods may be from any one of several tree taxa common to northeast Kansas, including various oaks (*Quercus* spp.) and hickories (*Carya* spp.). Diffuse porous pieces may represent taxa such as maple (*Acer* spp.), poplar or cottonwood (*Populus* spp.) and willow (*Salix* spp.). Fragments in which all distinctive morphological traits were distorted or destroyed during carbonization were classified as unidentifiable.

All seeds, which had been bagged separately from charred wood and nutshell, were examined and identified, if possible. Because the occupation at Site 14SH359 was of mid to late-eighteenth century origin, uncarbonized seeds could not be dismissed as archaeologically insignificant modern contaminants. Instead, uncarbonized seeds were considered potentially significant and evaluated accordingly. In samples with numerous uncarbonized and possibly fresh seeds of a particular taxon, a fine point dental pick was used to probe a subsample of specimens in order to assess residual flexibility and moisture of perisperm and endocarp tissues.

Identifications were made with the aid of standard texts (Core, Cote and Day 1979; Martin and Barkley 1961), and, when necessary, by comparison with a reference collection of modern carbonized and archaeological specimens. Genus level identifications were made whenever possible. Species identifications were attempted only if morphological comparisons ruled out other members of a genus (e.g. *Corylus americana*, *Phytolacca americana*). Scientific nomenclature follows Gleason and Cronquist (1991).

Results and Discussion

Flotation samples representing a combined volume of 150.0 liters of fill from three features, one postmold and various levels of five excavation units were examined. Plant remains consisted largely of wood charcoal and uncarbonized seeds, although two nutshell pieces and miscellaneous materials such as tree buds, herbaceous stems and a fungal fragment were also recovered.

Wood Charcoal

A total of 145 wood charcoal fragments weighting 2.03g was recovered. A minimum of seven tree taxa was represented in the 45 identified fragments. In descending order of frequency, the tree types identified were oak (*Quercus* spp.), including both the red and white subgenera (Q. *Erythobalanus* and Q. *Lepidobalanus*), cottonwood or willow (*Populus/Salix*), pine (*Pinus* spp.), elm (*Ulmus* spp.), hickory (*Carya* spp.) and honey locust (*Gleditsia triacanthos*). The 1862 GLO Survey Field Notes indicate that all of these tree types, except pine, occurred in vicinity of the Laughton/Nadeau homestead. Sufficient wood for construction and fuel could not have been obtained from forested areas along Cross Creek, or from pockets of woodland interspersed with prairie. Pine was identified only in the sample from the fill of Feature 2, a limestone well foundation described elsewhere in this report. It is likely that pine lumber was brought to the site for construction, either during the Potawatomi occupation or after, and that the burned waste material was incorporated in Feature 2 fill.

Nutshell

Two fragments of nutshell, both hazelnut (*Corylus americana*), were recovered from lower levels of excavation units (Unit 39, Level 5 and Unit 42, Level 4). Although they are considered insufficient to infer a pattern of human use, they confirm the local availability of a potentially useful resource. If hazelnuts were harvested, they probably were regarded as a supplement to diet rather than a primary subsistence item.

Seeds

Seeds numbered 200, all identifiable and uncarbonized except for one charred and unidentifiable fragment. The large majority (183) were seeds of the weedy annuals, lambsquarters (*Chenopodium* spp.) and pokeweed (*Phytolacca americana*). Examination of a subsample of each

seed type showed that they were clearly modern, based on the presence of translucent or flexible pericarp and perisperm tissue. Other seeds, including those of grape (*Vitis* spp.), basswood (*Tilia americana*), wild sunflower (*Helianthus* sp.) and grass (*poaceae*) also appeared to be modern, retaining their original color and residual flexibility. The only seed which may have originated in the Potawatomi occupation was the single unidentifiable carbonized fragment.

Other Botanical Remains

Among the miscellaneous items in the botanical assemblage were 98 presumably modern, small, uncarbonized tree buds, three carbonized herbaceous stem fragments, and one small piece of a charred fungal material typically associated with decaying wood. In addition to plant materials, small fragments of coal were present in several samples.

Summary

Botanical remain from 14SH359 suggest little about Potawatomi plant resource exploitation. Conspicuous by their absence are the remains of crops, especially corn. There is no suggestion in the assemblage that agriculture was practiced during the Laughton/Nadeau occupation, although the GLO Survey Field Notes record a cornfield at the site in 1862. The wood charcoal and nutshell residues reflect the occurrence of oak-hickory forest communities, as well as such prairie edge and bottomland tree taxa as honey locust and cottonwood or willow. Hazelnut shrubs would have flourished at the interface of prairie and forest, along with blackberries and other useful wild seasonal resources. However, with the exception of two hazel nutshell fragments, there is no evidence that these resources were utilized.

Chapter VIII: Faunal Remains from Site 14SH359

Terrance J. Martin and Claire Fuller Martin

Introduction

Field investigations at Site 14SH359 in December 1993, resulted in the recovery of a sample of 126 fragments of animal bone and shell. The faunal collection from Site 14SH359 is particularly interesting in that mid-nineteenth century refuse may reveal information on animal exploitation and subsistence practices of the earliest Potawatomi and Metis families to inhabit the area. Furthermore, previous archaeological investigations in northern Illinois resulted in the analysis of a large assemblage of animal remains on a tract of land attributed to the Laughton family during the 1830s (Tankersley et al. 1993). Consideration of these collections may eventually be useful for demonstrating changes in foodways that may have resulted from acculturation and/or adjustments to new environmental settings by the nineteenth century Potawatomi who settled in eastern Kansas.

Methods

The animal remains from Site 14SH359 were examined by the authors at the Illinois State Museum's Research and Collections Center in Springfield, where modern zoology collections of vertebrate skeletons and freshwater mussel shells are available for comparison. Specimen tags were completed for each identified specimen, and these contain information on site provenience, animal taxon represented, anatomical element, side, portion of element, completeness, cultural (e.g., burning, cut marks) and natural (e.g., carnivore and rodent gnawing) modifications, weight of the specimen in grams, and count. Refitted fragmented specimens were counted as one. This information was then entered into a dBase III Plus file structure in order to facilitate the analysis.

Summary calculations include the number of identified specimens (NISP), minimum number of individuals (MNI) per taxon, and total weight of specimens per taxon in grams. Because of mixed deposits, estimates of MNI were calculated from the site at large, and these are based on element, symmetry, portion, and biological age or body size.

Results

Species Composition

Nine vertebrate and six invertebrate animal taxa are represented at site 14SH359, and these are limited to mammals, birds, and freshwater mussels (Table 5). Considering its small size, the

Table 5. Species Composition of Animal Remains from 14SH359 (NISP, number of identified specimens; MNI, minimum number of individuals).

Taxon	NISP	MNI	Wt(g)
MAMMALS			
Opossum, <i>Didelphis virginiana</i>	1	1	.9
Eastern Cottontail, <i>Sylvilagus floridanus</i>	29	2	14.3
Woodchuck, <i>Marmota monax</i>	1	1	1.9
Horse, <i>Equus caballus</i>	1	1	3.3
Swine, <i>Sus scrofa</i>	7	2	19.9
Bison, <i>Bison bison</i>	1	1	34.6
Cattle/Bison, <i>Bos/Bison</i>	6	-	81.6
Sheep/Goat, <i>Ovis/Capra</i>	1	1	6.4
Unidentified Large Mammal	37	-	72.8
Unidentified Medium or Large Mammal	3	-	4.3
Unidentified Small or Medium Mammal	4	-	.2
Unidentified Small Mammal	2	-	.3
BIRDS			
Chicken, <i>Gallus gallus</i>	3	2	2.2
Unidentified Medium Bird	1	-	.1
FRESHWATER MUSSELS			
Threeridge, <i>Amblema plicata</i>	1	1	4.5
Fatmucket, <i>Lampsilis siliquoidea</i>	1	1	3.6
Yellow Sandshell, <i>Lampsilis teres</i>	1	1	1.1
cf. Plain Pocketbook, <i>Lampsilis cardium</i>	1	1	2.1
White Heelsplitter, <i>Lasmigona complanata</i>	2	1	6.7
Pimpleback, <i>Quadrula pustulosa</i>	3	3	63.4
Unidentified Mussel	20	-	54.0
Totals	126		377.3
Totals Identified	59	19	245.6

assemblage is diverse and includes a mixture of domestic and wild animals. Comparison of the species composition of the animal remains from the field and from the woods is presented in Table 6. The species diversity of both areas is comparable except for the occurrence of 29 cottontail bones in Feature 2 (a limestone well foundation). The distribution of the faunal assemblage by test unit and feature is presented in Tables 7 and 8.

Perhaps the most interesting specimen is a nearly whole first phalanx of a bison. This bone was distinguished from cow by comparing it to corresponding bones in both cow and bison skeletons and by referring to the distinguishing morphological features described by Balkwill and Cumbaa (1992:166-169). Six additional bones are too incomplete to discern whether they represent cattle or bison. These consist of centrum fragments of two thoracic vertebrae and a dorsal rib from Feature 1, a fragment of a proximal femur epiphysis from Feature 2, a part of an ilium from Unit 37, and a lower first molar from Unit 42.

Swine specimens include both isolated teeth and bones. The three swine elements recovered from the field consist of two left canines and a first phalanx. Excavations in the woods yielded a lower incisor, a molariform tooth fragment, part of a right maxilla with the third premolar, and part of a lumbar vertebra. Beside swine, domesticated mammals are limited to horse and either a sheep or a goat. The root portion of a horse canine tooth was identified from level 4 in Unit 42. The only sheep or goat bone is a sawed distal shaft of a tibia found during the controlled surface collecting phase of the investigation.

Small mammals are limited to three species. Eastern cottontail bones from Feature 2 include crania, isolated teeth, vertebrae, and hind leg bones. Two individuals are represented by two pairs of innominate bones, two sacra, and tibia fragments. The only other identified small mammal bone is a distal humerus from an opossum that was found in Unit 37. The lower incisor of a woodchuck was unearthed from Unit 42, located in the woods.

Identified bird bones are restricted to three chicken bones from Feature 2 in the field. These consist of a proximal ulna shaft from a mature individual and a coracoid and sternum from an immature individual. A rib from an unidentified medium-sized bird was found at the base of Feature 3 in the woods.

Six species of freshwater mussel are represented at the site. Murray and Leonard (1962) depict Shawnee County as the northern limit of distribution for five of the species with only the yellow sandshell being more common to streams to the southeast of the area. The plain pocketbook occurs in small rivers having gravel substrate, whereas the fatmucket and the white heelsplitter prefer mud and slow current. The threeridge, pimpleback, and yellow sandshell occur in a variety of stream habitats in Kansas. Located in the woods, Unit 43 yielded 11 specimens, the largest single concentration of shells at the site.

In addition to the macrofaunal remains, soil samples totaling 155 liters were processed by flotation. These samples yielded 7.6 g of small bone fragments and 1.3 g of snail and mussel

Table 6. Comparison of Species Compositions from the Field and the Wooded Area at 14SH359.

Taxon	Field Area NISP	Wt (g)	Wooded Area NISP	Wt (g)	Site Totals NISP	Wt (g)
MAMMALS						
Opossum	1	.9	-	-	1	.9
Eastern Cottontail	29	14.3	-	-	29	14.3
Woodchuck	-	-	1	1.0	1	1.0
Horse	-	-	1	3.3	1	3.3
Swine	3	5.3	4	14.6	7	19.9
Bison	-	-	1	34.6	1	34.6
Cattle/Bison	5	71.0	1	10.6	6	81.6
Sheep/Goat	1	6.4	-	-	1	6.4
Unidentified Large Mammal	18	28.7	19	44.1	37	72.8
Unid. Med. or Lg. Mammal	3	4.3	-	-	3	4.3
Unid. Sm. or Med. Mammal	4	.2	-	-	4	.2
Unidentified Small Mammal	2	.3	-	-	2	.3
BIRDS						
Chicken	3	2.2	-	-	3	2.2
Unidentified Medium Bird	-	-	1	.1	1	.1
FRESHWATER MUSSELS						
Theeridge	1	4.5	-	-	1	4.5
Fatmucket	-	-	1	3.6	1	3.6
Yellow Sandshell	1	1.1	-	-	1	1.1
cf. Plain Pocketbook	1	2.1	-	-	1	2.1
White Heelsplitter	1	4.0	1	2.7	2	6.7
Pimpleback	-	-	3	63.4	3	63.4
Unidentified Mussel	10	31.1	10	22.9	20	54.0
Totals	83	176.4	43	200.9	126	377.3

Table 7. Distribution of Animal Remains (NISP) by Unit in the Field Area at 14SH359 (Note: Feature 2 is in Unit 33, Feature 1 is in Unit 37, and CSC indicates Controlled Surface Collection).

	2	7	9	33	Fea 2	34	35	37	Fea 1	CSC	Totals
MAMMALS											
Opossum									1		1
Cottontail										29	29
Swine										3	3
Cattle/Bison									1		5
Sheep/Goat										1	1
Uni Lg Mammal										18	18
Uni M/L Mam	2										3
Uni S/M Mam	1	2									4
Uni Sm Mammal					4						1
					2						
BIRDS											
Chicken									3		3
MUSSELS											
Threeridge									1		1
Yellow Sandshell										1	1
cf. Plain										1	1
Pocketbook											
White Heelsplitter											
Uni Mussel	1					1				1	1
NISP Totals	1	1			1	5	43	16	1	3	10
Wt(g) Totals	.7	1.3			1.6	12.9	46.0	57.7	.8	17.0	83
									4.9	33.5	176.4

Table 8. Distribution of Animal Remains (NISP) by Unit in the Wooded Area at 14SH359 (Note: Feature 3 is in Unit 42 and Feature 4 is in Unit 43).

	38	39	41	42	Fea 3	43	Fea 4	Totals
MAMMALS								
Woodchuck			1	1				1
Horse				1				1
Swine	1	1	1	1				4
Bison					1			1
Cattle/Bison				1				1
Unident. Large Mammal	1			7	5	6		19
BIRDS								
Unident. Medium Bird					1			1
MUSSELS								
Fatmucket					1			1
White Heelsplitter		1						1
Pimpleback					1	3		3
Unident. Mussel						7	2	10
NISP Totals	2	2	1	12	6	18	2	43
Wt (g) Totals	8.9	.9	1.8	28.6	14.9	132.4	10.7	200.9

shell fragments, a density of only .057 g per liter. Specimens unique to the flotation samples were a snake vertebra from Unit 42, microtine rodent teeth from Unit 43, and small rodent remains from Unit 37 and Feature 3. Bird eggshell fragments were recovered from Units 37 and 42.

Modified Animal Remains

Several varieties of modification were observed among specimens in the 14SH359 faunal assemblage. Natural modifications include carnivore- and rodent-gnawing. Cultural modifications consist of burning, dismemberment and knife-cut marks, and bone and shell artifacts.

Natural Modifications. Both the woods and the field yielded rodent-gnawed bones. Feature 2 included three rodent-gnawed bones: a proximal femur of a bison, a cottontail tibia, and an unidentified large mammal bone. Unit 43 also contained two specimens from unidentified large mammals. The only carnivore-chewed bone is a large bovid (cattle or bison) rib from Feature 1.

Cultural Modifications. The only animal remains that were exposed to fire was a calcined unidentified large mammal bone from Unit 43.

Five specimens have cut margins resulting from the use of saws for butchering. These consist of a cattle or bison ilium from Unit 37, a sheep or goat distal tibia shaft fragment that was surface collected from the field (catalog no. 106), and single unidentified large mammal bones from Feature 1, Feature 2, and Unit 42. The only knife cut is on the shaft of a cottontail tibia found near the top of Feature 2.

The animal remains included several artifacts. A small 6.3 mm-long fragment of a bone handle was recovered in the woods from Unit 43. It is 3.9 mm thick from its flat surface to its rounded outer surface. There are two drilled holes along the broken edges; the larger hole is approximately 7 mm in diameter, whereas the smaller hole is 1 mm or less in diameter.

Also found in the woods, the lower incisor of a pig from Unit 39 (level 4) has a pointed tip as a result of carefully whittling away at the root with a knife. The specimen is 46.6 mm long; the whittled surface extends 24.8 mm back from the pointed tip.

Two freshwater mussel shells were modified, but their intended functions are unknown. The shell of a white heelsplitter, including the pseudocardinal tooth (right valve), has two straight margins that measure 25.2 mm and 26.5 mm with the remaining margin being approximately 28 mm. The triangular shell was found on the ground surface (catalog no. 135). The second specimen was recovered from the plowzone of Unit 37. It was ground flat with two gently rounded parallel margins on one face, and a polished and lustrous surface on the reverse side. The fragment is 15.5 mm long, 11.2 mm wide, and 1.5 mm thick.

Not included in tabulations of the faunal assemblage are one bone and five shell clothing buttons. The bone button is from the woods in Unit 38 and is four-holed, has a sunken panel and a rounded back, and measures 16.2 mm in diameter. Also, from the woods, three shell buttons were recovered from Unit 42. A four-holed button with a sunken panel is 14.0 mm in diameter, a small four-holed button is 0.9 mm in diameter, and a button with a metal shank is 17.0 mm in diameter. Two two-holed shell buttons with sunken panels were recovered from the field area. The button from the top of Feature 2 is 14.2 mm in diameter, and a specimen from Unit 33 is 18.9 mm in diameter.

Conclusions

Limited testing at Site 14SH359 resulted in a small but diverse assemblage of animal remains, which included both wild and domesticated animals. Based on the artifacts recovered, a mid-nineteenth century Potawatomi occupation of the site is indicated in the area near Cross Creek that is now in woods. Perhaps the bison phalange, the pig incisor awl, and the modified mussel shell fragments are products of this early Indian occupation. Domesticated animals, sawed bones, and the bone and shell buttons, however, seem indistinguishable from a nineteenth century Euroamerican habitation site. While intriguing, any detailed discussion of animal exploitation at Site 14SH359 must await clearer demarcation of the various historic components at the site.

More than 4,600 animal remains were recovered from a small deposit located along the Kankakee River in northeastern Illinois that is associated with an 1830s period of occupation (Tankersley et al. 1993:16-22). The assemblage of more than 40 animal taxa at the Windrose site includes mammals, birds, fish, reptiles, and freshwater mussels. Although white-tailed deer and raccoon dominate the collection, channel catfish, freshwater drum, redhorse, and various turtles must have been important supplemental sources of meat. A Potawatomi or Metis occupation is indicated by tubular quahog clam shell beads, a fragment of a bone die, and a pig mandible from which a 2 cm diameter disk was carefully extracted from the ascending ramus. These latter two items are suggestive of paraphernalia from a Potawatomi woman's dice game called *k'sukunuk* (Culin 1975:85). The faunal assemblage, coupled with the recovery of brass tinkling cones, silver earrings and a broach, glass trade beads, and spall gunflints made from local chert, implies that the Windrose site is related to the Potawatomi village. The land was reserved in 1832 for the children of Wais-kee-shaw and is now inside the Kankakee River State Park.

If the Potawatomi component at Site 14SH359 can be firmly delineated, a detailed comparison should be made to Potawatomi materials at the Windrose site in Illinois. Consideration of artifact and faunal assemblages from these sites have the potential to disclose many aspects of stability and change in Potowatomi culture over a dramatic period in their history. A rare opportunity may also exist archaeologically to trace the family of David Laughton and Wais-kee-shaw from northeastern Illinois in the early 1830s to northeastern Kansas where their son, Joseph Laughton, and his wife, Kitchi-Kumi-Kwi, resided during the late 1840s and 1850s.

Chapter IX: Results of Investigations at Sites 14SH348 and 14SH351

Mark J. Wagner and Tracey Sandefur

Introduction

Both Sites 14SH348 and 14SH359 were initially located by avocational archaeologist Dwight Streeter around 1990 through use of a metal detector. Items recovered by Steeter from Site 14SH351 consisted of five or six lead bullets, one tinkling cone, and one military button scattered over a wide area. The boundaries for Site 14SH351 shown on the Kansas State Historical Society (KSHS) form were drawn to encompass the general area where the metal detected items were found rather than being based on a surface distribution of artifacts. As previously indicated, permission was denied for access to Site 14SH348. However, archival work was completed and if the Federal project proceeds Site 14SH359 will be tested.

Archival Research

Chain of Title

Both sites are contained within land allotment 592, a 160 acre tract (SW $\frac{1}{4}$ of Section 27 Township 10S Range 13E) that was allotted to 23 year old Citizen Band member John Hale in 1863 (Figure 12). His wife, 18 year old Julia, claimed an 80 acre tract (593) located immediately north of this tract in the S $\frac{1}{2}$ of the NW $\frac{1}{4}$ of Section 27.

It cannot be established whether the Hales ever resided at either Site 14SH348 or 14SH351. An 1873 plat map (Figure 9) reveals that while a "J. Hale" still owned Julia Hale's allotment, John Hale's allotment (i.e., Sites 14SH348 and 14SH351) had passed into the hands of C.W. Higginbotham. No land conveyance between Hale and Higginbotham regarding this property could be found in the county deed book at the Shawnee County Courthouse and the actual date of conveyance is unknown. On October 1, 1895, Higginbotham sold the part of this tract containing Site 14SH351 (pt. SW $\frac{1}{4}$ Section 27) to J.M. Heslet. Heslet maintained ownership until at least 1900. The chain of title for this site was not researched beyond that date. C.W. Higginbotham maintained ownership of the tract containing Site 14SH351 until at least 1919 when he leased the S $\frac{1}{2}$ of the SW $\frac{1}{4}$ to R.P. Marder as an oil lease. A conveyance of the property containing the site from Higginbotham to another land owner could not be found although deed records were checked until 1945. The last recorded land transaction by C.W. Higginbotham in

the county deed book occurs in 1943, approximately 70 years after he acquired the land containing Site 14SH351.

Little information has been found on John and Julia Hale following their sale of land allotment 592 to C.W. Higginbotham. Although they still owned Julia Hale's allotment in 1873, similar to a number of other Citizen Band Metis the Hales apparently moved north at some point in the latter part of the nineteenth century to join the traditional Prairie Band Metis.

Hale Family

A number of discrepancies were found in the records examined as part of this project regarding John and Julia Hale. Based on information supplied by the Citizen Band Potawatomi, John Hale apparently was a white Euroamerican while Julia Hale was a member of the Citizen Band Potawatomi. Although the Citizen Band records indicate that John Hale was a white Euroamerican, the fact that he shared in the 1863 allotment of the Potawatomi Reserve lands suggests that he was a mixed-blood. Similarly, information contained on a 1902 marriage license for the Hale's son Joseph reveals that both John and Julia Hale also had Potawatomi names: Skum-nah (John Hale) and Ke-wah-tah (Julia Hale). That John Hale had a Potawatomi as well as a Euroamerican name again suggests that he was a mixed-blood rather than a Euroamerican.

Conflicting birth dates also were found for both John and Julia Hale. According to the 1863 allotment census John Hale was 23 years old at that time while Julia was 18 (Figure 12). These ages indicate that John Hale and Julia Hale were born about 1840 and 1845, respectively. Records supplied by the Citizen Band Potawatomi, however, indicate that John or "Johnnie" Hale was born in 1831 while Julia was born in 1843. Yet a third set of records relating to Julia Hale give her birth date as 1833. Of these records, the 1863 census information is judged to be the most accurate as it would have been obtained from the Hales themselves.

John and Julia Hale had at least five children: William, Joseph, Rebecca (Wap-a-konia), and Mary (Rice). The limited information found regarding these children includes a 1902 marriage license for Joseph (Potawatomi name: Waubance) and estate papers for Rebecca Hale (Wap-a-konia/Wahpeconiah/Wapp) who died in 1946.

Although John and Julia Hale apparently sold John Hale's land allotment to C.W. Higginbotham shortly after receiving it, they still owned Julia Hale's allotment in 1873. Similar to a number of other Citizen Band Metis who either sold or were swindled out of their allotment lands, however, the Hales moved north at some point in the latter part of the nineteenth century to join the traditional Prairie Band Potawatomi on their diminished reservation (Herring 1990:133-134). Many of the Citizen Band Potawatomi who moved north, however, were never fully accepted by the Prairie Band, instead occupying positions as laborers on lands the Prairie Band did not care to cultivate themselves. Some, however, such as the Nadeaus, emerged as part of an

intermediary "elite stratum" situated between the American government and the Prairie Band (Clifton 1977:351-352).

The status of the Hale family during this time is unclear. The 1902 Potawatomi Indian Marriage license issued for their son, Joseph, reveals that he was living at the Potawatomi Agency and classified as a Potawatomi but provide no information on whether he was a member of the Citizen or Prairie Band. The estate records of the Hale's daughter Rebecca (filed at the Potawatomi Indian Agency in Horton, Kansas, in 1947), however, classify her as a member of the Citizen Band Potawatomi.

Joseph Hale (Potawatomi name: Waubance) appears to have been continuing the Metis pattern of marrying into a traditional Potawatomi family. The license listed Meough-kah and Madeline as the Indian and Euroamerican versions of his wife's first name. Her last name was not given. In a later section of the license the Euroamerican and Indian versions of her first name were combined and her full name given as Madeline Meough-kah. The absence of an Euroamerican last name for Madeline Meough-kah suggests that she may have been a full-blood Potawatomi rather than a Metis.

Records provided by the Citizen Band Potawatomi indicate that John Hale died on August 24, 1881. Julia Hale married again (date unknown), taking as her husband a man named Wan-be-tuck (Christian name unknown) who had been born in 1834. Julia Hale's death date is unknown. She was, however, still alive as late as 1905.

Field Investigations - Site 14SH351

Field investigations were conducted at Site 14SH351 on December 8, 1993. The site had been recently plowed with 100% surface visibility. The field crew was accompanied by Dwight Streeter, the avocational archaeologist who had originally located the site. He stated that he had never seen any artifacts on the surface at Site 14SH351. He further stated that the artifacts he had recovered from the site consisted of widely scattered items located by using a metal detector.

It originally had been proposed that the NRHP potential of Site 14SH351 be investigated through: (1) the use of a controlled surface collection or excavation of a series of 50 x 50 cm units in a cross pattern; (2) excavation of an additional 16 square meters of the site. These field procedures were predicated on the assumption that Site 14SH351 represented an occupation site with a high probability of containing subsurface features.

Controlled Surface Collection

The field containing Site 14SH351 was intensively surface collected by a five-person crew on December 8, 1994. Despite excellent visibility, only two items--a piece of whiteware and a fragment of burned bone--were found within the limits of the site as recorded on the KSHS site form. In addition, a mid nineteenth century flask bottle base was recovered approximately 50 m

east of the recorded site location. Broken rock, nails, or other items indicative of an occupation site were not present.

Screened Shovel Tests

The field methodology for Site 14SH351 was revised following the completion of the surface collection. Because of the low artifact frequency, a decision was made to decrease the level of effort at Site 14SH351 in favor of more intensive investigation of Site 14SH359. The Corps of Engineers, who were informed of this decision during the course of the field investigations, concurred with the decision to limit investigation at Site 14SH351 to systematic shovel testing. Site 14SH351 was systematically shovel tested at 5 m intervals on December 8, 1993 (Figure 40). Four additional items, all confined to the plow zone, were recovered. Subsurface features or midden were not encountered.

Artifact Analysis

Analysis of artifacts from Site 14SH351 was conducted by James Snyder of American Resources Group, Ltd. on February 25, 1994. A total of six artifacts, all kitchen-related, was recovered from the site. Two of these artifacts were recovered from the surface while the remaining four were collected from the screened shovel tests. In addition, a glass flask base was collected outside the previously recorded site boundary.

Ceramic artifacts recovered from Site 14SH351 include whiteware ($n=2$) and yellowware ($n=1$). The whiteware sherds are from unidentifiable flatware vessels and are undecorated. The yellowware fragment is either the rim of a large bottle or jug. It has a Rockingham glaze on the exterior that, as mentioned in the previous chapter, has a date range from ca. 1812-1900 (Brown 1982).

Two aqua colored glass container fragments were also recovered. One fragment is from either a bottle or jar. Method of manufacture of the fragment is unknown. The second fragment is part of the base from a small bottle or jar. A section of a pontil mark is present which appears to be from a blowpipe. Unfortunately, the mold type used to manufacture the vessel cannot be determined. However, blowpipe pontils were used in the manufacturing of glass containers until about 1860 (Deiss 1981).

The bone fragment is burned and fragmented to the point that identification is impossible. However, it does appear to be part of some mammal.

The last fragment recovered is from outside the site boundary and is the base of a flask. An embossed line on the body suggests that this may be either a scroll or pictorial flask. The

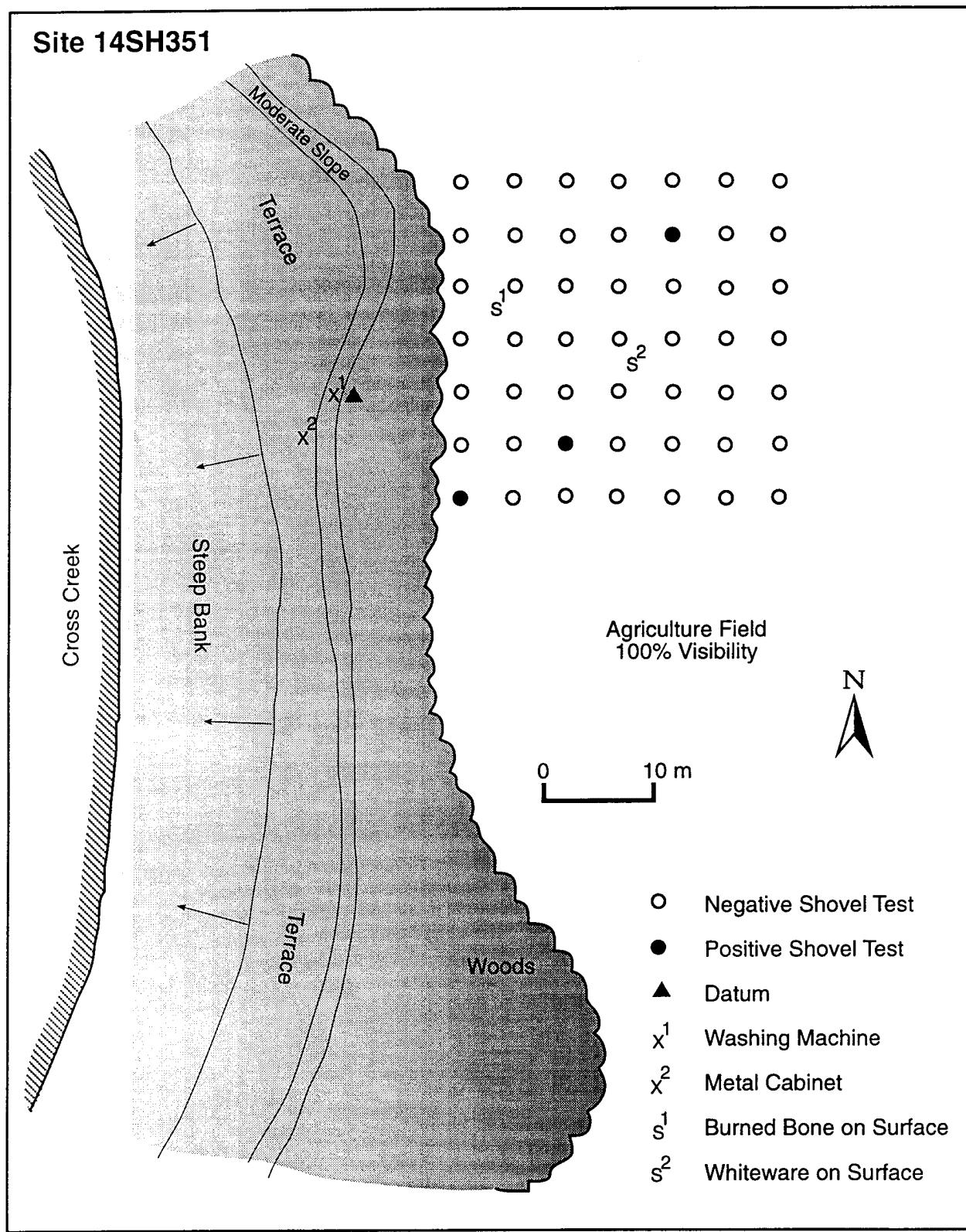


Figure 40. Location of excavations, site 14SH351.

method of manufacture used on the aqua colored flask appears to be a two-piece mold with a snap case. The date range for this type of manufacture is from 1860 to 1875 (Deiss 1981).

Summary

Given the extremely light artifact frequency, the artifacts recovered at Site 14SH351 may represent casually lost or discarded items by inhabitants of other Potawatomi sites in the area. Site 14SH351, which is contained in a slight swale, is in an unfavorable location for a habitation site. There is a rise 50 m to the north that would have been a much more favorable location for an occupation site than the 14SH351 site location. The extremely light scatter of artifacts found at Site 14SH351 probably extends across the entire Cross Creek floodplain in this area with Site 14SH351 representing an arbitrary slice of this scatter. Although the entire floodplain surrounding Site 14SH351 was not intensively surveyed, scattered pieces of whiteware and glass ware observed in other sections of this floodplain well beyond the Site 14SH351 limits. Although further investigations at Site 14SH351 would probably recover additional items, it is extremely doubtful that subsurface features are present at the site.

Chapter X: Phase II Survey Results

W. Gordon Howe

Results of Phase II Survey

Phase II field investigations were conducted on April 26, 1994 of a 25-acre area along Cross Creek south of the Union Pacific railroad and Highway 24 (Figure 1). The acreage consisted of a segment of the proposed levee alignment, a channel cutoff, a potential ponding area, and a drainage ditch alignment that extends west from the ponding area (Figure 1). The channel cut off extends south from Highway 25 to Cross Creek and from station 15+00 to station 31+00 and is approximately 1900' long and 250' wide. The levee alignment extends from station 44+00 to 95+00 and is approximately 5100' long and 100' wide except at the creek crossing where it is 200' wide. The ponding area is located on the south end of the levee alignment and is approximately 750' long by 150' wide. The proposed drainage ditch tract extends west from the ponding area approximately 750' long and 100' wide.

All of the acreage was in newly planted row crops with corn approximately 3cm high and sprouting soybeans. Soil conditions consisted of well-washed soil with 100% surface visibility.

No cultural material was found over the diversion channel and levee segment immediately south of Highway 24. No cultural material was found at either the proposed ponding area or the far southern limits of the levee alignment from stations 70+00 to 95+00.

A very thin scatter of historic material was located along the levee alignment south of Cross Creek. The scatter covered an area approximately 440' x 440' (193,600 ft²) and was centered at approximately station 65+00 (Figure 40). The scatter of historic material was exceedingly thin over the area. Also, present within the site boundaries was a scatter of limestone stream gravel. Three machined brick fragments (not collected) were found along with three small limestone rocks that appeared to have a cut edge (not collected). Neither the gravel, brick, nor limestone rock showed signs of mortar. The only artifacts collected at the location were stoneware (n=2), consisting of a single piece of salt-glazed exterior, with Albany glaze interior (mid to late nineteenth century) and a fragment of a strap handle, with Albany glaze (mid nineteenth to early twentieth century); whiteware (n=1) nondiagnostic; white glass (n=1) nondiagnostic; bottle glass neck (n=1), improved tooled cork closure (1870-1915); and electric insulator (n=2), twentieth century. Several other very small slivers of bottle glass were noted at the location along with less than 10 small slivers of window glass (not collected). No metal, or architectural debris, other than

the window glass, was found. The highest concentration of gravel was on the east side of the rock scatter with approximately one-third of the concentration lying within the levee right-of-way (Figure 41). Shovel tests on 10 m intervals were conducted through the scatter to determine if foundation elements or cultural debris might be located below the plow zone. Each shovel test was excavated to a maximum depth of approximately 40 cm BS. No artifacts or structural elements were noted below the present plow zone. The artifacts suggest a date from post 1870 to the early twentieth century. A review of a 1873 plat of Rossville (Figure 9) does not indicate any structure at this location, nor is a structure indicated on the USES 7.5' 1952 Rossville quadrangle.

Several observations have been made about this location. First, the few historic artifacts found were very fragmented and were so small that identification was only possible on a few collected pieces. Second, the location consists almost exclusively of small sized gravel (maximum approximate diameter 10 cm). Larger pieces of either sandstone or limestone that would have served as foundation piers, such as those associated with Site 14SH359 were not found. Third, architectural debris, kitchen ware, and personal items such as those found associated with Site 14SH359 were not found.

The scatter of gravel and artifacts extends to the north far outside the levee right-of-way and appears to extend into a residential area within the town of Rossville (Figure 40). Based on the low frequency of cultural debris, architectural material and artifacts typically associated with a residence, this location may be interpreted as a small dump site associated with a nearby residence, perhaps located within the town of Rossville just to the north. Further investigation at the location would recover additional artifacts, but the lack of diversity and density of artifacts at the site suggests that it is very doubtful that subsurface features are present.

Mr. Dwight Streeter indicated that there were two possible archaeological sites in this vicinity of the levee alignment that might be impacted by the project. Neither site was located during the survey and it is possible that they are located on two small floodplain ridges noted south and outside the levee right-of-way.

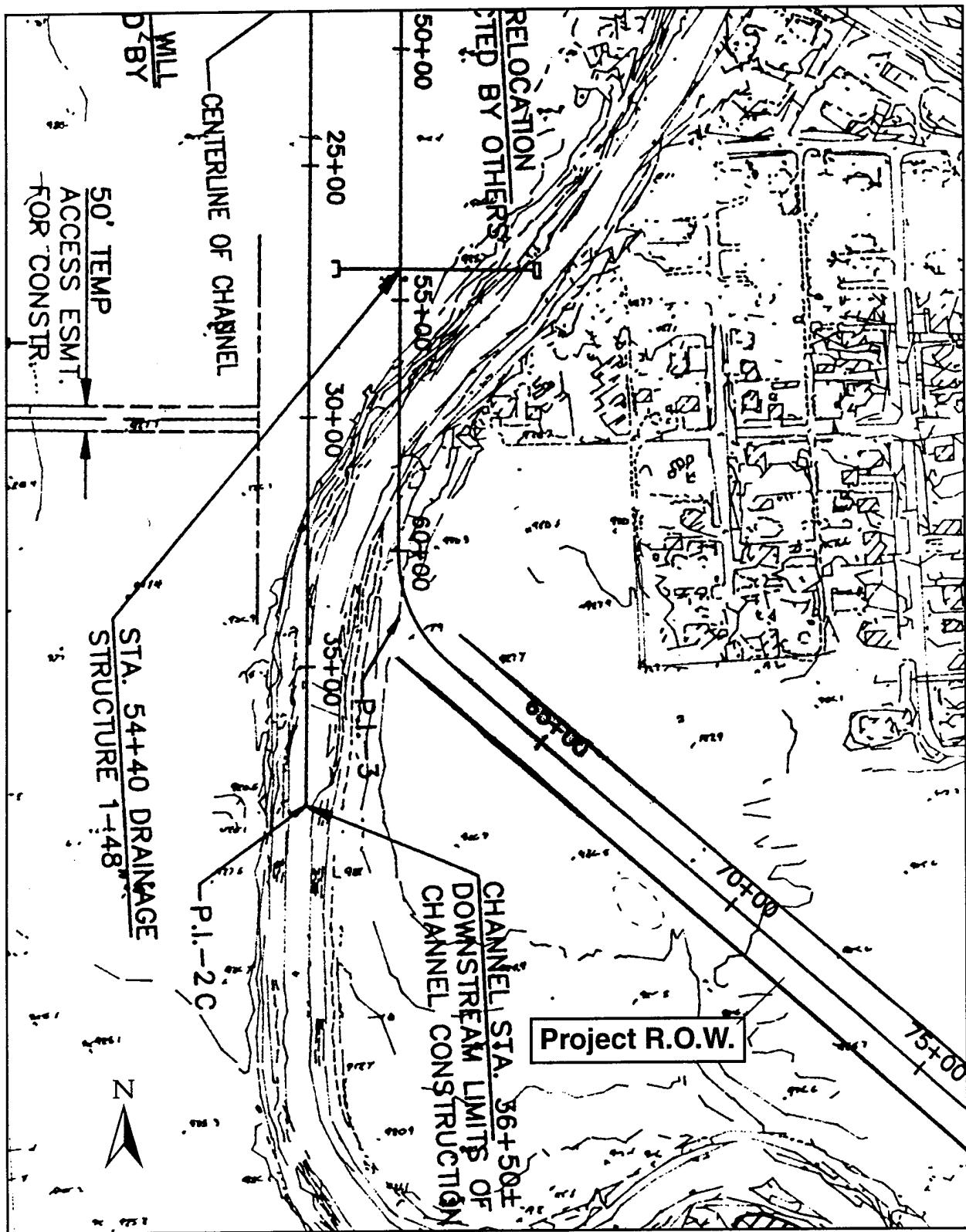


Figure 41. General location of site 14SH112 within project R-O-W.

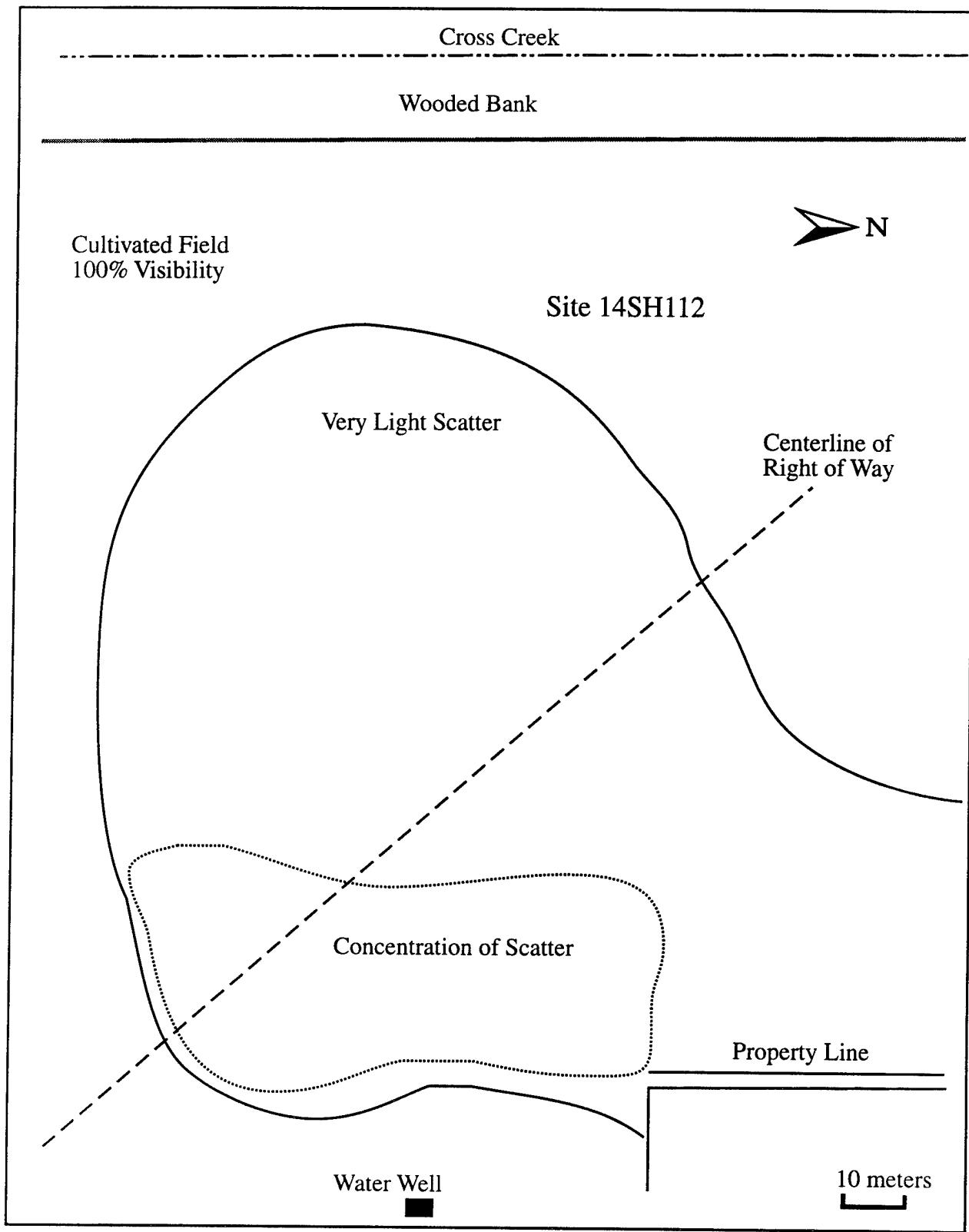


Figure 42. Planview of Site 14SH112.

Chapter XI. Evaluation of Research Questions and Recommendation of NRHP Significance

Michael J. McNerney

Three research propositions were formulated before field work began at Sites 14SH351 and 359. They were based on an extensive review of published Potawatomi literature and archival records and recognized that the ability to explore the issues would be dependant on the types and quantities of archaeological data recovered during testing. The three propositions previously defined include:

- (1) Metis identity as cultural brokers will be reflected in patterns of material culture, subsistence activities, and spatial organization that reflect their role as mediators between Native American and Euroamerican societies;
- (2) Although conforming to a basic pattern that reflects the intermediary role of the Metis, archaeological materials recovered from Metis sites will exhibit a variation that reflects the wide range in acculturation that characterized mid-nineteenth century Citizen Band Metis society;
- (3) Metis adaptability to changing social and economic conditions will be reflected in wide variation in material culture and subsistence patterns between the 1830s Laughton household at the Windrose Site (11-Ka-318A) in Illinois and the 1848-ca. 1867 Laughton/Nadeau household (Site 14SH359) in Kansas.

The foregoing research propositions were formulated assuming that Phase III testing would proceed at three sites; however, access to Site 14SH348 was denied and test excavations were never conducted at the site. Investigations at Site 14SH351 failed to produce enough archaeological information to test any of the propositions and it is unlikely that there was ever a significant occupation at the location examined. This leaves only the results of Phase III test investigations at Site 14SH359 with which to examine the three propositions.

The focus of this research and the related evaluation of National Register significance at Site 14SH359 is the Metis occupation of the Joseph Laughton family (1848-1855) and the Laughton-Nadeau family (1855-1868).

Proposition 1 is very broad in its scope and the material culture, subsistence data, and spatial organization from Phase III testing at Site 14SH359 does not clearly identify the Joseph Laughton family or the Laughton-Nadeau family as cultural brokers. Subsistence data is extremely limited from the site and the question of spatial organization should be explored on a multi-site and regional basis rather than on a simple site basis as a means of wrestling with the cultural broker concept.

Proposition 2 explores the concept that archaeological materials from Site 14SH359 will reflect the intermediary role of the Metis and exhibit a wide range of acculturation. Data from the site does offer tantalizing evidence for this proposition.

The Native American artifacts recovered from the site by Dwight Streeter included a religious medallion, shell bead, and a brass bell. Artifacts recovered from test excavations in the woods included three glass beads, a possible ceramic seed bead, and three rosettes commonly found as accouterment to equestrian tack and popular among Native Americans, indicating more traditional lifeways and preferences. These stand in contrast to the predominantly Euroamerican artifacts from the Metis occupation at the site which exhibit mean ceramic dates from 1854-1859 (Table 3) and bottle glass dates ranging from 1848-1865.

This artifactual evidence provides evidence for some transitional acculturation at the site. Further excavations in the woods would probably uncover more artifacts assignable to historic Native Americans.

Proposition 3 explores Metis adaptability to changing social and economic conditions beginning in the 1830s at the Windrose site in Illinois and continuing through the reservation period in Kansas at Site 14SH359. This proposition is beyond the scope of Phase III National Register evaluation at Site 14SH359.

National Register of Historic Places Evaluation

Central to archaeological investigations conducted in response to Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act is the evaluation of site significance based on NRHP criteria "(d) that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history" (Federal Register 1976:1595).

Judgements relating to site significance are based on the potential that a site has for answering research questions, the physical integrity of a site as revealed by test excavations, on the condition and extent of subsurface cultural deposits and intact features, and the presence of archaeological information that permits establishing temporal and cultural affiliation.

Site 14SH351

A controlled surface collection followed by screened shovel tests produced only eight historic artifacts. Rock, nails, or related architectural debris was not recovered. This lack of architectural evidence suggests that there were no buildings on the site, and thus, no permanent occupation. Based on this evidence, it is the opinion of the investigator that Site 14SH351 does not meet the NRHP criteria of significance.

Site 14SH359

Historical research and test excavations at Site 14SH359 demonstrate that this site has the potential to contribute to our knowledge of Potawatomi history, the Reservation Period in Kansas, and specifically to questions relating to Metis life ways between 1848 and 1868, acculturation processes, and the history of the Joseph Laughton and the Laughton-Nadeau families.

The site meets NRHP significance as stated in criteria,

- a) that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history;
- d) that have yielded, or are likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

Indications are that the site possesses archaeological integrity, contains as yet unexplored subsurface features and an intact, unplowed midden in the woods in the northwest portion of the site (Figure 12). During the present investigation five features were located on the site. Feature 3, an earthen cellar located within the undisturbed portion of the site, produced mid-nineteenth century artifacts indicative of a historic Native American occupation.

In addition to archaeological significance, Site 14SH359 is also historically significant. The site relates to the fur trade, the economic foundation upon which America was founded, and the social and economic relationships of the Native Americans, French, and Euroamericans that were engaged in the fur trade. Also, the site relates to and reflects the historically significant Indian removal period of American history. Finally, Site 14SH359 and the families it represents contribute to our understanding of the historic Native American and Euroamerican culture contact in a variety of ways. The foregoing issues certainly represent "the broad patterns of our history."

Based on these findings, it is the opinion of the investigators that Site 14SH359 meets the criteria of significance and is eligible for listing on the NRHP.

Site 14SH112

Phase II Survey of Proposed Levee Alignment

Three prehistoric research propositions were posited for the Phase II survey:

- (1) due to the environmental and cultural factors, cultural affiliation will be indeterminate for 70% of all prehistoric sites revealed;
- (2) if prehistoric diagnostic cultural materials are recovered, they will represent previously identified cultural phases within the Glaciated Region of northeastern Kansas, and
- (3) prehistoric site frequency within the floodplain will be low.

The survey failed to locate any prehistoric sites; therefore, the first two propositions cannot be tested. Proposition number three is confirmed, prehistoric site frequency within the levee alignment and channel cut-off areas is nonexistent.

The historic research design for the survey predicted the presence of two site types, farmstead complexes and dump or discard locations. Based on very low artifact frequency, lack of architectural artifacts, kitchen items, personal items, and rock for foundation piers, site 14SH112 is interpreted as a dump/discard location.

Based on the results of the Phase II survey, Site 14SH112 has very little research potential, and in the opinion of the investigators does not meet the NRHP criteria of significance. Therefore, planning and construction for the levee at this location is recommended without further NRHP evaluation.

References

Abmeyer, Walter, and H.V. Campbell
1970 Soil Survey of Shawnee County, Kansas. United States Department of Agriculture,
Soil Conservation Service.

Allotment Report
1863 Allotment of Lands Made to the Pottawatomie Tribe of Indians by Commissioners
W.W. Wolcott and W.W. Ross. General Services Administration, Federal
Records Center, Kansas City, Missouri.

Anderson, R. C.
1968 The Quaternary of Illinois.

Andreas, A. T.
1883 History of the State of Kansas. A.T. Andreas, Chicago, IL.

Anonymous
1937 A Buffalo Hunt. Kansas Historical Quarterly 6:2:203-205.

Baerreis, David A.
1961 Archaeological Investigations near Mobridge, South Dakota.

Ball, Donald B.
1984 Historic Artifact Patterning in the Ohio Valley. In Proceedings of the Symposium
on Ohio Valley Urban and Historic Archaeology, vol. 2, edited by Donald B. Ball
and Philip J. DiBlasi, pp. 24-36. Archaeological Survey, University of Louisville,
Louisville.

Balkwill, Darlene McCuaig, and Stephen L. Cumbaa
1992 A Guide to the Identification of Postcranial Bones of *Bos taurus* and *Bison bison*.
Syllogeus No. 71. Canadian Museum of Nature, Ottawa.

Baptismal Record Council Bluffs Mission
1838-1841 Book B1. Jesuit Missouri Province Archives, St. Louis, Missouri.

Baptismal Records Immaculate Conception Church
1851-1871 Immaculate Conception Church, St. Mary's, Kansas.

Bassman, Herbert J. (editor)

1936 Riverside: Then and Now. Riverside News, Riverside, Illinois.

Binford, Lewis R.

1972 *A Consideration of Archaeological Research Design*. In An Archaeological Perspective, edited by Lewis R. Binford, pp. 135-161. Seminar Press, New York.

1980 *Willow Smoke and Dogs' Tails: Hunter-Gatherer Settlement Systems and Archaeological Site Formation*. American Antiquity 45:4-20.

Branson, Carl C.

1962 *Pennsylvanian System of the Mid-Continent*. In Pennsylvanian System in the United States, edited by Carl C. Branson, pp. 431-460. American Association of Petroleum Geologists, Tulsa.

Brown, Ann R.

1982 Historic Ceramic Typology with Principal Dates of Manufacture and Descriptive Characteristics for Identification. Ms on file, Delaware Department of Transportation, Division of Highways, Location and Environmental Studies Office.

Brown, Kenneth L.

1987a Section XII: *Flint Hills*. In Kansas Prehistoric Archaeological Preservation Plan, edited by Kenneth L. Brown and Alan Simmons. Office of Archaeological Research, Museum of Anthropology, University of Kansas, Lawrence.

1987b Section XIII: *Osage Cuestas*. In Kansas Prehistoric Archaeological Preservation Plan, edited by Kenneth L. Brown and Alan Simmons. Office of Archaeological Research, Museum of Anthropology, University of Kansas, Lawrence.

1987c Section XIV: *Glaciated Region*. In Kansas Prehistoric Archaeological Preservation Plan, edited by Kenneth L. Brown and Alan Simmons. Office of Archaeological Research, Museum of Anthropology, University of Kansas, Lawrence.

Brown, Kenneth L., and Marie E. Brown

1987 Section IX: *The Paleoindian Period*. In Kansas Prehistoric Archaeological Preservation Plan, edited by Kenneth L. Brown and Alan Simmons. Office of Archaeological Research, Museum of Anthropology, University of Kansas, Lawrence.

Brown, Kenneth L., and Alan H. Simmons (editors)

1987 Kansas Prehistoric Archaeological Preservation Plan. Office of Archaeological Research, Museum of Anthropology, University of Kansas, Lawrence.

Buchanan, Rex
1984 Kansas Geology. University Press of Kansas, Lawrence.

Burke, Reverend James M.
1953 *Early Years at St. Mary's Potawatomie Mission, From the Diary of Father Maurice Gailland, S.J.* Kansas Historical Quarterly 20:501-509.

Burley, David V., Gayel A. Horsfall, and John D. Brandon
1992 Structural Considerations of Metis Ethnicity: An Archaeological, Architectural, and Historical Study. The University of South Dakota Press, Vermillion.

Carlson, Gayle F.
1979 Archeological Investigations at Fort Atkinson (25WN9), Washington County, Nebraska, 1956-1971. Publications in Anthropology--Number Eight, Nebraska State Historical Society, Lincoln.

Chittenden, Hiram Martin, and Alfred Talbot Richardson
1905 Life, Letters, and Travels of Father Pierre-Jean de Smet,(sic) S.J., vol. Four Volumes. Francis P. Harper, New York, NY.

Clark, Jerry E.
1979 *Jesuit Impact on Potawatomi Acculturation: A Comparison of Two Villages in the Mid-Plains*. Ethnohistory 26:4.

Clifton, James A.
1977 The Prairie People: Continuity and Change in Potawatomi Indian Culture 1665-1965. The Regents Press of Kansas, Lawrence.
1978 *Personal and Ethnic Identity on the Great Lakes Frontier: The Case of Billy Caldwell, Anglo-Canadian*. Ethnohistory 25:1.

Connelley, William E.
1918 The Prairie Band of Pottawatomie Indians. Kansas Historical Collections vol. XIV 14:488-570.

Core, Harold A., Wilfred A. Cote, and Arnold C. Day
1979 Wood Structure and Identification. 2nd ed. Syracuse University Press, Syracuse.

Culin, Stewart
1975 Games of the North American Indians. Reprinted. Dover Publications Inc., New York. Originally published 1907 as the Twenty-Fourth Annual Report of the Bureau of American Ethnology to the Smithsonian Institution, 1902-1903, by W. H. Holmes, Chief, Washington, D.C.

Deiss, Ronald W.

1981 The Development and Application of a Chronology for American Glass.
Midwestern Archaeological Research Center, Illinois State University, Normal.

Duernick, Father John B., S.J.

1856 "St. Mary's College House Diary, 1854-1862". St. Mary's Mission Records, C5.

Dye, David H., and Katherine H. Moore

1978 *Recovery Systems for Subsistence Data: Water Screening and Flotation*. Tennessee Anthropologist 3:59-69.

Edmunds, R. David

1978 *The Potawatomis: Keepers of the Fire*, Volume 145 of The Civilization of the American Indian Series. University of Oklahoma Press, Norman and London.

Fay, George E. (editor)

1971 Treaties Between the Potawatomi Tribe of Indians and the United States of America, 1789-1867. Museum of Anthropology, University of Northern Colorado, Greeley.

Federal Register

1983 *Archaeology and Historic Preservation: Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines*. In Federal Register, vol. 48(190), pp. 44716-44740.

Fike, Richard E.

1987 Bottle Book: A Comprehensive Guide to Historic Embossed Medicine Bottles. Gibbs M. Smith, Inc., Peregrine Smith Books, Salt Lake City.

Gailland, Father Maurice, S.J.

1848-1850 *Diary*. Kansas Mission-Indian Records, C2.

Garraghan, Gilbert J.

1938 The Jesuits of the Middle United States, vol. Three volumes. America Press, New York.

Gibson, Susan G.

1980 Burr's Hill: A 17th Century Wampanoag Burial Ground in Warren, Rhode Island. Haffenreffer Museum of Anthropology, Brown University.

Gleason, Henry A., and Arthur Cronquist

1991 Manual of Vascular Plants of Northeastern United States and Adjacent Canada. 2nd ed. Van Nostrand, Princeton, New Jersey.

Hacker, Peter R.

1989 *Confusion and Conflict: A Study of Atypical Responses to Nineteenth Century Federal Indian Policies by the Citizen Band Potawatomis*. American Indian Culture and Research Journal 13:1.

Hagedorn, Nancy L.

1988 *A Friend to go Between Them: The Interpreter as Cultural Broker During Anglo-Iroquois Councils 1740-70*. Ethnohistory 35:1.

Harrison, Julia D.

1984 Metis: People Between Two Worlds. The Glenbow-Alberta Institute in association with Douglas & McIntyre, Vancouver/Toronto.

Haskell, Helen Woolford

1981 The Middleton Place Privy House. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology Popular Series I, University of South Carolina, Columbia.

Hawes, Edward, and Elizabeth Weir

1979 The Historical Landscape: Recovery Through Research. Publications Series II, Research Report No. 7. Clayville Rural Life Center & Museum, Sangamon State University, Pleasant Plains.

Herring, Joseph B.

1990 The Enduring Indians of Kansas: A Century and a Half of Acculturation. University of Kansas, Lawrence.

Hoecken, Father Christian, S.J.

1848-1849 *Diarium*. Kansas Mission-Indian Records, D3.

Hughes, G. Bernard

1963 The Country Life Collector's Pocket Handbook. Country Life Books, London.

Jensen, George Peter

1953 Historic Chicago Sites. Creative Enterprises, Chicago, Illinois.

Johnson, Alfred E.

1979 *Kansas City Hopewell*. In Hopewell Archaeology: The Chillicothe Conference, edited by David S. Brose and N'omi Greber, pp. 86-93. Kent State University Press, Ohio.

Jurney, David H., and Randall W. Moir
1987 Historic Buildings, Material Culture, and People of the Prairie Margin, vol. V, Richland Creek Technical Series. Archaeology Research Program, Institute for the Study of Earth and Man, Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Texas.

Kappler, Charles J.
1973 Indian Treaties, 1778-1883. Interland Publishing Inc., New York

Ketchum, William C., Jr.
1983 Pottery and Porcelain. Alfred A. Knopf, New York.
1987 American Country Pottery. Alfred A. Knopf, New York.
1991a American Stoneware. Henry Holt and Company, New York.
1991b American Redware. Henry Holt and Company, New York.

Krause, Richard A.
1972 The Leavenworth Site: Archaeology of an Historic Arikara Community. University of Kansas Publications in Anthropology Number 3. Lawrence, Kansas.

Lees, William B.
1986 Jotham Meeker's Farmstead. Anthropological Series No. 13. Kansas State Historical Society, Topeka.
1989 Kansas Preservation Plan Section on Historical Archaeology. Archaeology Department, Kansas State Historical Society, Topeka.

Liber Baptismorum
1836-1850 Kansas Mission-Indian Records, E1.

Liber Matrimonium
1836-1847 Book B2. Kansas Mission-Indian Records, B2.

Lofstrum, E., J.P. Tordoff, and D.C. George
1982 A Seriation of Historic Earthenwares in the Midwest, 1780-1870. Minnesota Archaeologist 41(1):3-29.

Long, Norman
1975 Structural Dependency, Modes of Production and Economic Brokerage in Rural Peru. In Beyond the Sociology of Development: Economy and Society in Latin America and Africa, edited by Livar Oxael, Tony Barnett, and David Booth. Routledge and Kegan Paul, London.

Lorrain, Dessamae
1968 *An Archaeologist's Guide to Nineteenth Century American Glass*. Historical Archaeology 2:35-44.

Luscomb, Sally C.
1967 The Collector's Encyclopedia of Buttons. Borianz Books, New York.

Mandel, Rolfe D.
1987 Section III: *The Environment of Kansas*. In Prehistoric Archaeological Preservation Plan, edited by Kenneth L. Brown and Alan Simmons. Office of Archaeological Research, Museum of Anthropology, University of Kansas, Lawrence.

Martin, Alexander C., and William D. Barkley
1961 Seed Identification Manual. University of California Press, Berkeley.

Moffat, Charles R., Kurt R. Moore, David E. Conrad, Mark J. Wagner, and Jerry J. Moore
1985 Cultural Resources Survey, Mark Twain National Forest, Missouri. Cultural Resources Management Report No. 94, prepared for the USDA Forest Service. American Resources Group, Ltd., Carbondale, Illinois.

McCorvie, Mary R.
1986 *The Davis (2ID3-246H) and Huggins (2ID3-247H) Sites: Two Nineteenth Century Upland South Farmsteads in Perry County*. In Nineteenth Century Archaeology in Illinois. Compiled by Thomas E. Emerson and Charles L. Rohrbaugh. Illinois Cultural Resources Study No. 2. Illinois Historic Preservation Agency, Springfield.

McCorvie, Mary R., and Mark J. Wagner
1988 A Brief Summary of Findings for Phase II Archaeological Investigations at the Benjamin "Blackbear" Vermillion Site (11MR54), Salem, Illinois. Partners in Historic Preservation, Inc., Carbondale.

McCorvie, Mary R., Mark J. Wagner, Jane K. Johnston, Terrance J. Martin, and Kathryn E. Parker
1989 Phase III Archaeological Investigations at the Fair View Farm Site (11-Sa-336): A Historic Farmstead in the Shawnee Hills of Southern Illinois. Cultural Resources Management Report No. 135 ed. American Resources Group, Ltd., Carbondale, IL.

Miner, H. Craig, and William E. Unrau
1978 The End of Indian Kansas: A Study of Cultural Revolution, 1854-1871. University Press of Kansas, Lawrence.

Murphy, Reverend Joseph, O.S.B.
1988 Potawatomi Of the West: Origins of The Citizen Band. Citizen Band Potawatomi Tribe, Shawnee, Oklahoma.

Murray, Harold D., and A. Byron Leonard
1962 Handbook of Unionid Mussels in Kansas. Miscellaneous Publication No. 28. University of Kansas, Museum of Natural History, Lawrence.

O'Brien, Patricia J.
1978 *Steed-Kisker: A Western Mississippian Settlement System*. In Mississippian Settlement Patterns, edited by Bruce D. Smith, pp. 1-19. Academic Press, New York.

1984 Archaeology in Kansas. Museum of Natural History Public Education Series No. 9. University of Kansas, Lawrence.

Page, Vicki
1985 *Reservation Development in the United States: Peripherality in the Core*. American Indian Culture and Research Journal 9:3.

Parmalee, Paul W., Ronald D. Oesch, and John E. Guilday
1969 Pleistocene and Recent Vertebrate Faunas from Crankshaft Cave, Missouri. Reports of Investigations No. 14, Illinois State Museum, Springfield, Illinois.

Peterson, Jacqueline
1978 *Prelude to Red River: A Social Portrait of the Great Lakes Metis*. Ethnohistory 25:1.

1982 *Ethnogenesis: The Settlement and Growth of a "New People" in the Great Lakes Region, 1702-1815*. American Indian Culture and Research Journal 6 (2):23-64.

Price, Cynthia R.
1982 Nineteenth Century Ceramics in the Eastern Ozark Border Region. Center for Archaeological Research, Monograph Series No. 1. Southwest Missouri State University, Springfield.

Quimby, George Irving
1963 Indian Culture and European Trade Goods: The Archaeology of the Historic Period in the Western Great Lakes Region. The University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, Milwaukee, London.

Randall, Mark E.
1971 Early Marbles. Historical Archaeology 5:102-105.

Ray, Jack H., Edward M. Morin, Michael J. McNerney, and R. Gail White
1984 A Phase I Cultural Resources Survey and Assessment on Residual Lands at Union Electric Company's Nuclear Power Plant, Callaway County, Missouri. Cultural Resources Management Report No. 52. American Resources Group, Ltd., Carbondale.

Reynolds, John D.
1983 Archaeological Investigations at Old Fort Scott, 14B0302, Fort Scott, Kansas 1968-1972. Archaeology Department, Kansas State Historical Society.

1987 The Archeology of Grove Reservoir Kansas, 1969. Anthropological Series Number 14. Kansas State Historical Society, Topeka.

Richter, Daniel K.
1988 *Cultural Brokers and Intercultural Politics: New York-Iroquois Relations 1664-1701.* The Journal of American History 75(1).

Rogers, Leah D., Candace J. Lutzow, and Terrance J. Martin
1988 The Ratcliff (13MA400) and Stortes/Crookham (13MA262) Sites: Data Recovery at Two Historic Farmsteads, Lake Red Rock, Iowa. Cultural Resources Management Report No. 129. American Resources Group, Ltd., Carbondale.

Rohn, Arthur H., and Judith A. Maline
1981 Cultural Resources Reconnaissance Survey, Shawnee County, Kansas. Archaeology Laboratory. Wichita State University, Wichita, Kansas.

Root, George A.
1936 Ferries in Kansas, Part II, Kansas River. Kansas Historical Quarterly .

Rossville Centennial Committee
1971 Rossville 1871-1971. The Rossville Centennial Committee, Rossville, KS.

Schoewe, Walter H.
1949 The Geography of Kansas. Transactions Kansas Academy of Science 52:261-333.

Sepulti in Coemeterio Missionis Stae.
1840-1872 Mariae prope Sugar Creek, vol. Book E3. Jesuit Missouri Province Archives, St.Louis, Missouri.

Silver Lake Centennial, Inc
1971 Silver Lake Centennial 1870-1970. Silver Lake Centennial, Inc.

Skinner, Alanson

1924 The Mascoutens or Prairie Potawatomi Indians, vol. VI. Bulletin of the Public Museum of the City of Milwaukee, Milwaukee, Board of Trustees.

Smith, Robert E.

1972 *The Final Removal of the Wyandot Indians*. The Westport Historical Quarterly VIII, No. 1:3-18.

South, Stanley

1977 Method and Theory in Historical Archaeology. Academic Press, New York.

Stewart, Aura P.

1881 Recollections of Aura P. Stewart, of St. Clair County, of Things Relating to the Early Settlement of Michigan, vol. IV. Wynkoop, Hallenbeck, and Crawford Company, Lansing, Michigan.

Stone, Lyle M.

1974 Fort Michilimackinac 1715-1781, an Archaeological Perspective on the Revolutionary Frontier. Publications of the Museum, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

Tankersley, Kenneth B., Terrance J. Martin, Jenny Ruth Tankersley, Dawn Harm-Sullivan, John C. Richmond, Barbara Lary, and James C. Dahlbert

1992 Archaeological Investigations at the Windrose Site (11-Ka-318A): An Early 19th-Century Potawatomi Site in Northeastern Illinois. Illinois State Museum Quaternary Studies Program Technical Report, Springfield, Illinois.

1993 Archaeological Investigations at the Windrose Site (11-Ka-318A): An Early 19th-Century Potawatomi Site in Northeastern Illinois. Technical Report No. 92-668-13. Quaternary Studies Program, Illinois State Museum Society, Springfield.

Tanner, Helen Hornbeck

1987 Atlas of Great Lakes Indian History. University of Oklahoma Press, Norman, Publishing Division of the University.

Tolstead, Laura Lu, and Ada Swineford

1979 Kansas Rocks and Minerals. Kansas Geological Survey, University of Kansas, Lawrence.

U.S. Department of the Interior/National Park Service/Interagency Division

1986 National Register. Bulletin No. 16. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

Wagner, Mark J.

1988 A Brief Summary of Findings for Phase I, II, and III Investigations at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. American Resources Group, Ltd., Carbondale.

Wagner, Mark J., and Mary R. McCorvie

1992a *Frontier Taverns on the St. Louis-Vincennes Trace*. Explorations in Illinois Archaeology No. 1. Illinois State Museum and Illinois Department of Transportation, Springfield, Illinois.

Wagner, Mark J., Tracey Sandefur, Charles Foor, and Lucretia Kelly

1992b Phase II Archaeological Investigations at Site 14LV136, U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs Medical Center, Leavenworth, Kansas. Cultural Resources Management Report No. 132, American Resources Group, Ltd., Carbondale, Illinois.

Wagner, Mark, Frances R. Knight, Tracey Sandefur, Terrance J. Martin, Kathryn E. Parker, and J. C. Richmond

1993 Phase II Archaeological Investigations at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. Cultural Resources Management Report No. 199, American Resources Group, Ltd., Carbondale, Illinois.

Wagner, Mark J., and Mary R. McCorvie

1988 A Brief Summary of Findings for Phase II Archaeological Investigations at the Benjamin "Blackbear" Vermillion Site (11-Mr-54), Salem, Illinois. Report submitted to the Illinois Department of Transportation by Partners in Historic Preservation, Inc., Carbondale.

Wagner, Mark J., and Mary R. McCorvie

1990 Archaeological Investigations at the Old Landmark: An Early to Mid-Nineteenth Century Tavern on the St. Louis-Vincennes Trace. Cultural Resources Management Report No. 3, Partner in Historic Preservation. Key Connections, Carbondale.

Wagner, Mark J., Mary R. McCorvie, Terrance J. Martin, and Kathryn E. Parker

1989 Phase I, II, and III Archaeological Investigations at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. Cultural Resources Management Report No. 132. American Resources Group, Ltd., Carbondale.

Wallis, Charles S. Jr

1984 Report of Archaeological Work Conducted in the Okfuskee County Tributaries Watershed between 1979 and 1984; and Analysis of the Historic Components at the Cow Creek Site, 340f-24. General Survey Report (1984:3). Oklahoma Conservation Commission, Oklahoma City.

Wedel, Waldo R.

1943 Archaeological Investigations in Platte and Clay Counties, Missouri. Bulletin No. 183. Smithsonian Institution, United States National Museum, Washington, D.C.

Wetherbee, Jean

1980 A Look at White Ironstone. Wallace-Homestead Book Company, Des Moines.

Wilson, Rex L.

1981 Bottles on the Western Frontier. University of Arizona Press, Tucson.

Witty, Tom

1981 *The Pomona Focus, Known and Unknown*. The Missouri Archaeologist 42:77-83.

Wolf, Eric R.

1956 *Aspects of Group Relations in a Complex Society: Mexico*. American Anthropologist 58(6).

Wyckoff, Martin A.

1984 United States Military Buttons of the Land Services, 1787-1902: A Guide and Classification System. McLean County Historical Society, Bloomington, Illinois.

Yeoman, R. S.

1992 A Guide Book of United States Coins. Western Publishing Company, Racine, Wisconsin.